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EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYERS: THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE
AND MAJOR LEAGUE BASEBALL

A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army
Command and General Staff College in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree

MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

by

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A.S., Cameron University, 1979
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This study delved into the premise that the Department of Defense is the United States' most equal opportunity employer. The employment results of the United States Army was compared with the results of Major League Baseball using five imperatives: Accessions, Promotions, Key Assignments, Retention, and Discipline. The study researched the history of integration within the United States Army and Major League Baseball since the voluntary integration of their organizations. Both institutions' significance was noted because of their voluntary integration, around the same period, before the Supreme court's decision (Brown versus the Board of Education) that mandated every institution to integrate "with all deliberate speed". The study indicate that the concept of equal opportunity is very realistic and attainable. Also, because of the clearly defined and established affirmative action goals of the United States Army, the Army appear to have made broader achievements than baseball, who appear to extend equal opportunity only to their playing fields. Further research is required to ascertain the reason(s) for the disparity of white and black soldiers' receipt of punishment and involuntary separation from the United States Army; and, why white soldiers' rates were consistently better than their black counterparts in the areas of promotions, accessions and key assignments.			
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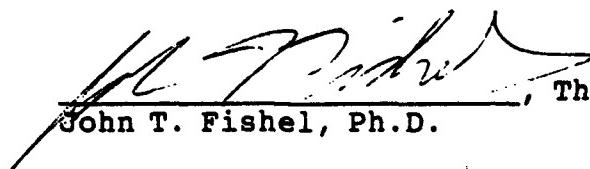
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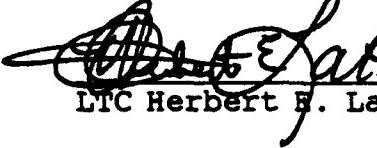
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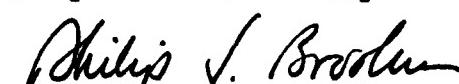
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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the student author and do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College or any other governmental agency. (Reference to this study should include the foregoing statement.)

ABSTRACT

EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYERS: THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE AND MAJOR LEAGUE BASEBALL by MAJ Leon N. Yates, USA, 116 pages.

This study examines the premise that the Department of Defense is the United States' most equal opportunity employer. The employment results of the United States Army were compared with the result of Major League Baseball using five imperatives: accessions, promotions, key assignments, retention and discipline.

The study researched the history of integration within the United States Army and Major League Baseball and noted the accomplishments of each since the voluntary integration of their organizations. Each institution's significance was noted because of its voluntary integration, around the same period, before the 1954 Supreme court's decision (*Brown versus Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*) that mandated every institution to integrate "with all deliberate speed."

The study indicates that the concept of equal opportunity is realistic and attainable. The achievements of the United States Army and Major League Baseball demonstrate the positive results which an organization can accomplish through commitment of equal opportunity employment.

The study also indicates that, because of the clearly defined and established affirmative action goals of the United States Army, and the routine assessment of the Army's equal opportunity program, the Army appears to have made broader achievements than baseball's, which appear to extend equal opportunity only to their playing fields.

Further research is required to ascertain the reason(s) for the disparity between white and black soldiers' receipt of punishment and involuntary separation from the Army and why white soldiers' rates were consistently better than their black counterparts' in promotions, accessions and key assignments.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
APPROVAL PAGE	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
 Chapter	
 1. INTRODUCTION	1
Research Question	3
Research Hypothesis	3
Background	4
Limitations	8
Delimitations	8
Assumptions	9
Methodology	9
Definition of Terms	11
 2. THE UNITED STATES ARMED SERVICES .	13
Historical Overview	13
The Revolutionary War Period . .	13
Post Revolutionary War Period . .	14
The War of 1812	14
The Mexican American War	15
The Civil War	16
Post Civil War	17
The Indian Campaigns and Spanish	
American War	20
World War I	21
Post World War I	23
World War II	24
Post World War II	25
President Truman Acts	26
The Korean War	31
Vietnam Conflict	32
Deserts Shield and Storm	33
Race Relations Education and	
Affirmative Actions Within	
the Department of Defense . .	33
 3. MAJOR LEAGUE BASEBALL	40
Historical Overview	40

The Negro League	44
The Major League	46
Jackie Robinson Arrives	49
The Jackie Robinson Era	53
Post Robinson and Modern Day Baseball	57
 4. COMPARISON AND ANALYSIS	61
General	61
Accessions	62
Promotions	66
Retentions	67
Key Assignments	68
Discipline	70
Data Analysis	
United States Army	71
Accessions	71
Promotions	72
Senior Enlisted Promotions	74
Retention	
Involuntary Separations	76
Key Assignments	
Senior Ranking Distribution	77
Key Assignments	
Command Selectees	79
Punishment	82
Data Analysis	
Major League Baseball	84
Accessions	84
Promotions	85
Key Assignment	89
Retention	91
Punishment	92
Data Comparison	93
Accessions	93
Promotions	93
Retention	95
Key Assignments	96
Punishment	96
Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendation	98
General	98
Summary	99
Conclusions	101
Synopsis MATRIX	102
Recommendations for Further Research	102

ENDNOTES	104
BIBLIOGRAPHY	113
INITIAL DISTRIBUTION	116

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Officers Accessions	71
2	1985 Promotion Results [Officers]	73
3	1986 Promotion Results [Officers]	73
4	1987 Promotion Results [Officers]	73
5	1988 Promotion Results [Officers]	74
6	1987 Enlisted Promotion Results Enlisted Promotions	75
7	1988 Enlisted Promotion Results Enlisted Promotions	76
8	Commissioned Officers Separated .	77
9	Enlisted Separated	77
10	United States Army Commissioned Officers	78
11	Senior Noncommissioned Officers .	79
12	1988 O-6 Command Selection . . .	80
13	1987 O-6 Command Selection . . .	80
14	1988 O-5 Command Selection . . .	81

15	1987 O-5 Command Selection . . .	81
16	Command Sergeants Major Selection	82
17	Courts Martial Results (1988) . .	83
18	Courts Martial Results (1987) . .	83
19	Courts Martial results (1986) . .	83
20	Non-judicial Punishment (Article 15)	84
21	1993 Salaries	85
22	1992 Salaries	87
23	1992/1993 Top 25 Players	88
24	Key Assignments (Baseball) . . .	89

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

During Operations Desert Shield and Desert Storm, public concern was expressed about the disproportionately high numbers of non white servicemen and women throughout the United States Armed Services. The issue was the belief that poverty, in America, had drawn the non white population to military service, and, created a potential for unequal suffering in combat "for Saudi oil." "During this conflict in the desert, blacks constituted 28.9 percent of the Army, while representing only 12 percent of the United States' population. Comparably, in 1942 [during World War II] Blacks made up only 5.8 percent of the Army."¹

President Bush responded that the reason for this disproportionate representation is that the Department of Defense (DOD) is the United States' most equal opportunity employer. This theme was echoed in his address at the 1991 USMA graduation:

Martin Luther King dreamed of an America in which one day our children would-and to quote- "not be judged by the color of their skin, but by the content of their character." In the Army, just as here at West Point, that "one day" has arrived.²

The President's premise was supported by the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, General Colin Powell and General H. Norman Schwarzkopf, then commander of Operations Desert Shield and Desert Storm. In fact, speaking of the high numbers of African-American soldiers involved in Operations Desert Shield and Desert Storm, General Schwarzkopf stated:

I think it's a credit to the military because they come to the military because they understand that that's one place where they are going to be treated truly equal and they have just as much opportunity to get ahead as anyone else.³

I will delve into the validity of President Bush's premise that the Department of Defense is the United States' most equal opportunity employer. The military environment which has been "equated as the only major institution in America with something like a level playing field"⁴ will be compared with another level "playing field", athletics.

The choice of athletics, particularly professional Major League Baseball (MLB), and the United States Armed Services, is appropriate because of their similarities in the area of equal employment opportunity. The armed service and professional athletics have long been believed to be the "stepping stones" (institutions) for African Americans' upward mobility in America.

Supposedly, the armed services and athletics have been the leaders in the area of equal opportunity employment. Both have repeatedly demonstrated that upward

mobility and participation should be based on ability and potential. More importantly, each of these institutions was first in voluntary integration and permitting equal participation. The integrating policies of these institutions, DOD and athletics (baseball), were before the 1954 Brown versus the Board of Education decision.

The Supreme Court validated the correctness of their independent decisions. This study is a historical overview of segregation, desegregation, integration and the equal opportunity movement in America. Also studied is the impact of affirmative actions and equal opportunity upon the Department of Defense and professional athletics [Major League Baseball]. The historic desegregation actions of the courts, (e.g., Brown versus the Board of Education in 1954), Jackie Robinson's arrival to professional baseball in 1946, and President's Truman's 1948 Executive Order desegregating the armed forces will be compared and contrasted.

Research Question

The purpose of this research is to answer the question: Who is the United States' most equal opportunity employer? The Department of Defense or Major League Baseball?

Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis is stated as a null hypothesis to test the statement. The null hypothesis is:

There is no difference between the Department of Defense and professional athletics [Major League Baseball] in providing equal employment opportunity in America.

In addition to the primary research question, the study will also seek to answer 4 subordinate questions:

- (1) Is the concept of "equal" opportunity realistic?
- (2) Are established employment goals attainable?
- (3) Can abilities overcome racial prejudices?
- (4) What was the motivation of President Truman and

Major League Baseball to hasten equal rights?

Background

America's racial problem erupted again in 1967 with the race riots from Newark to Detroit and Watts. The summer of 1967 is remembered as when America burned:

The summer of 1967 again brought racial disorders to American cities, and with them shock, fear and bewilderment to the nation. The worst came during a two-week period in July, first in neighboring communities. On July 28, 1967, the President of the United States established this [Kerner's] Commission and directed us to answer three basic questions: What happened? Why did it happen? What can be done to prevent it from happening again? To respond to these questions, we have undertaken a broad range of studies and investigations. We have visited the riot cities; we have heard many witnesses, we have sought the counsel of experts across the country. This is our basic conclusion: Our nation is moving toward two societies, one black, one white - separate and unequal.⁵

The road from Watts to equality seemed impenetrable during those dark times when the 1968 Report of the Kerner

Commission [On Civil Disorder] proclaimed:

[W]hat white Americans have never fully understood - but what the Negroes can never forget - is that white society is deeply implicated in the ghetto. White institutions created it, white institution maintain it, and white society condones it.⁶

The resulting civil disorder provided "much of" the motivation for many of the achievements in equality we see today. During the remainder of the 1960's, 1970's and 1980's, societal changes were recognized which corrected many of the injustices identified by the 1968 Kerner Commission Report.

Even though many institutions "joined the bandwagon" for equality and solving the problems identified in the Kerner Commission's report, few institutions can declare successful achievement of the tasks today. Yet, President Bush's premise that the DOD is United States' "most" equal opportunity employer was accepted without dissent.

Although, the Army's motto, "Be All You Can Be", is a noble calling and the Department of Defense and professional Athletics have long asserted the belief that one should only be limited by their mental and/ or physical abilities or limitations, historically, however, within the United States, unfortunately, words and deeds have not always meshed. A review of inter-racial relations, in the United States, reveals periods of hate, violence, intolerance and subjugation.

It is ironic that a country whose earliest immigrants were escaping persecution and domination, for the most part, would have a history so dominated by ethnic subjugation, persecution and intolerance. This study will show how far America has traveled towards becoming an equal society. What were the critical events that resulted in the realization that the status quo must change? Was it the violence, changing social mores, or refinement of the social consciousness? Something had to have happened to signal that the timing was right for equal employment opportunities in the United States. What was it? Was it something special about the qualities of such significant "movers" as President Truman? According to various publications, President Truman also was a racist:

Harry Truman who made civil rights a federal priority for the first time since Reconstruction, expressed strong racist sentiments before, during, and after his presidency . . . In 1911, Truman wrote I think one man is as good as another so long as he's honest and decent and not a nigger or Chinaman . . . I am strongly of the opinion Negroes ought to be in Africa, yellow men in Asia and white men in Europe and America.

Based on this disclosure we know that a liberal heart was not President Truman's motivation to expedite the civil rights movement in America, so what was it? This question will be developed in chapter 2. Also, we must ask why did professional baseball deem the timing was right to integrate in 1947? Indications lead us to believe it was a desperate act by the Brooklyn Dodgers to win.

Ebony magazine relates:

The Jackie Robinson story started, in a manner of speaking, in 1942 when Branch Rickey, a baseball executive with an eye for history and drama, moved to Brooklyn as president and general manager of the Dodgers . . . At the time, George C. McLaughlin was president of the Brooklyn Trust Company, which controlled Dodgers policy by right of its trusteeship of 50 percent of Dodgers stock . . . Rickey told McLaughlin that he would like to meet the board of directors to discuss mass scouting . . . that may include a Negro player or two . . . McLaughlin was equal to the challenge . . . which, in Rickey's mind, was calculated to build a dynasty.⁸

African Americans' participation in sports have had tremendous growth since the decision in 1942 to recruit the best qualified athletics for the Dodgers. Consider this recent head count for an indication of the black athlete's presence in American sports:

Of the more than 1,300 players in the NFL, about 60 percent are Black. In the NBA, black players are 75 percent of the 1,000 player league. And while only 18 percent of the 650 players in major league baseball are African American, factoring in stars from Latin American and the Caribbean raises the number of Black players to nearly 40 percent.⁹

Equally astounding has been the transition of the armed forces from the Revolutionary War through Deserts Shield and Storm. Blacks have participated in every armed conflict since the American Revolutionary War.

However, it was not until after the Civil War, around 1866, that the first legal steps were taken to establish the position of the [African American] as a permanent part of the United States Army. A total of 317,710 [black] troops served during World War I.

This number represented 10.7 percent of the United States forces. Over 500,000 [blacks] served during World War II, and, as a result of their overall performance and manpower requirements, it was recommended that segregated units be discontinued. On July 26, 1948 President Truman signed Executive Order 9981 effectively desegregating the services.¹⁰

Although, The Department of Defense's General Colin Powell, and Major League Baseball's Mr. Bill White, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and National League President, respectively, attest to the progress made by African Americans within their respective institutions, are their successes represented at all levels of their organization? Can any member of their organizations, with the abilities, have the opportunity to attain equally high positions, regardless of race?

Limitations

African Americans within the United States Army and Major League Baseball will be used as the study group to limit the scope of this study.

Delimitations

Although females constitute a significant minority within the United States Army, their exclusion from professional baseball precludes their inclusion of this study.

Assumptions

(1) Institutions want to be equal opportunity employers.

(2) There are qualified minority candidates to satisfy all established affirmative action goals.

(3) The President's premise that the DOD is United States' most equal opportunity employer was accepted without dissent.

Methodology

The Department of Defense and Major League Baseball will be scrutinized in detail. To establish the problem, this study is based on historic documents, federal reports, current events and periodicals. Additionally, we shall review other published writings detailing the social issues of the time. Pertinent data from historical documents will establish where America was when the judiciary branch (Supreme Court) dictated that corrective actions had to be done in the area of equal opportunity "with all deliberate speed."

A model will be constructed to compare the imperatives:

(1) Accessions - Are there discriminatory means used?

(2) Promotions - Are the best qualified promoted?

(3) Retention - Only the least qualified are

involuntarily released?

4) Key Assignment - Is there representative distribution at all levels of the organization?¹¹

(5) Discipline - Are those punished representative, or greater than, the overall black population?

Additionally, comparable tenets, e.g., organizational structures and comparative positions of responsibility, will be developed and contrasted within the Major League Baseball and United States Army organizations. The standard will be the overall representation of the population within the parameters. The goals established by the United States Army and Major League Baseball (MLB) to achieve their equal opportunity objectives will be surveyed, compared and contrasted within the model. A standard will be established for "equal opportunity" using the principles of law and the established goals of the selected institutions, and, a proportional comparison to organizational representation and the actual population.

The United States Army has clearly defined goals which are published in their Affirmative Action Plan (AAAP), and monitored continually for compliance and assessment purposes by Office of the Deputy Chief Of Staff For Personnel at the Pentagon. The Annual Equal Opportunity Assessment is a tool submitted annually in accordance with Defense Directive 1350.0, dated December 1988, and reports upon those areas

within the AAP deemed necessary for a positive environment for soldiers and progress of the AAP's goals.

Major League baseball's goals are not as rigidly defined, but under then Commissioner Peter Ueberroth, its commitment to equal employment opportunity is well established. The assessment and definition of baseball's goals will be discussed in chapter 3. Analysis of the data will be conducted to evaluate the standards for what is to be interpreted as compliance with their equal opportunity goals.

Finally, this study will comprise and contrast the selected institutions' data based on their established standards and the actual achievement of their goals.

Definition of Terms

The definition of the following terms apply to this study:

Accessions refer to the process utilized to recruit personnel for an organization.

Affirmative Actions refer to plans for identifying and correcting inequities caused by or related to race, religion, sex, creed or national origin.

Equal Opportunity refer to the a policy of treatment and opportunities irrespective of race, color, religion, sex, and national origin.

Ethnic Groups is used in preference to the term "race" and is considered as dealing primarily with population groups distinguished by the possession of specific inherited

physical characteristics or language, religion, culture, national origin or any combination thereof.

Goals refer to the established standards in accordance with an affirmative action plan. The standards are "should meet" and do not establish a minimum achievement requirement and ensure only fully qualified candidates are accepted.

Individual Racism refers to the subordination of an individual or group because of race, religion, color, sex, creed, or national origin.

Institutional Racism refers to an institutional implementation of racial or ethnic subordination.

Prejudice refers to unsubstantiated favorable or unfavorable prejudgment of an individual or group leading to actions of a constant direction.

Quotas refer to minimum established standards in accordance with an affirmative action. The standards are "must meet" and may result in less than qualified candidates being accepted.

Stereotypes refer to the practice of exaggerated beliefs primarily evoked by an individual to justify prejudices.

CHAPTER TWO
THE UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES

Historical Overview

African Americans have participated in America's "conflicts" since the Boston Massacre, in 1770, through the 1990's Operations Desert Shield and Desert Storm in Southwest Asia. Whenever the ideals or interests of the United States of America were challenged, African American men and women have been there to support their country. Beginning with Crispus Attucks through Generals Waller and Powell, African Americans have participated in each of our nation's major armed conflicts.

The Revolutionary War Period

Initial service was marked with confusion as to whether blacks should serve their country:

During the American Revolution, General George Washington issued an order forbidding the recruiting of Negroes, but only a month later (in December 1775) reversed the order, and black men continued to serve until the end the war. There were black marines as well as black soldiers; and there were black men serving on privateers and warships. It was during the Revolutionary War that black men were introduced into the armed services, and here began their history of achievements and heroism.¹

Post Revolutionary War Period

Ironically, the result of African Americans' service to their country has not always been gratitude, rewards or humane treatment. For example, African Americans' service during the Revolutionary War saw no change in their continued status as slaves.

However, during this period of enslavement, some African Americans slaves were allowed to serve their country within the armed services.

After the signing of the Treaty of 1783, Great Britain appeared reluctant to recognize America's independence . . . In 1806, the American frigate Chesapeake was captured by the British man of war Leopard. Three of the four men captured were Negroes. This affair and other complications resulted in the War of 1812.²

The War of 1812

"During the War of 1812, American Negroes provided civilian manual labor and served as seamen aboard the war vessels at sea; on land the black soldiers fought some famous battles."³ Unfortunately, because of their continued subordinated status during this period their accomplishments were not always duly noted. Throughout this period of continued service to nation, the black man's general status continued to be the property of white men.

Although, their situation appeared hopeless, and fruitless, the black man continued to serve his nation. They would also contribute to the westward expansion of America.

The Mexican American War

Ironically, one member of an oppressed class would actively contribute to the conquest, and subjugation of another, in support of America's expansionism. As hopeless as the blacks' situation appeared, they would continue to enlist their services into the United States armed forces.

The United States in 1845 claimed that it had a legitimate right to controversial land beyond the Nueces and Rio Grande on the Mexican side . . . The Congress authorized an enlistment of fifty thousand volunteers and black men were among those who answered their country's call. The Negroes' participation was mainly in the navy, with an estimated one thousand blacks in naval service during the Mexican [American] War . . . Negroes also served in the Army in regular and volunteer units.⁴

Throughout their service, enslaved black men were haunted by their constitutional status, three-fifth of a man, by the United States Constitution :

[Article I, Section 2. Clause 3]
Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the Whole Number of free persons, including those bound to Service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three - fifths of all others Persons [this portion of the Article resulted in blacks being equated as three fifths of a human being.⁵

A decade would elapse before this situation would be adequately addressed.

The Civil War

No greater paradox could have been created than the War Between the States. Brother against brother, father against son, a nation divided over the issue of slavery. "When a divided nation sounded the call to arms in 1861, black Americans responded. They were seen on the battlefield in Union blue and Confederate gray."⁶ The purposes of their service in each force were diverse, but at the same time very similar; southern blacks served their masters in the Confederate Army for their individual freedom from slavery. Meanwhile, their northern brothers' service in the Union Army was for the liberation of the whole black race.

The Civil War was regarded as the war for liberation. "The number (twenty-four) of Congressional Medals of Honor awarded to black men during the Civil War"⁷ is a testimony of the commitment to service that was rendered in their pursuit of ending slavery and finally fulfilling their aspirations of freedom.

Nothing contributed more to the fighting spirit of blacks than President Lincoln's signing of the Emancipation Proclamation on January 1, 1863: "I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves . . . are, and henceforth shall be, free."⁸

Many have argued as to what was President Lincoln's motivation for signing the Proclamation.

Some have even debated that it was a worthless action because it freed slaves only in the Confederate states, and not in the border states still within the Union. However, "Lincoln had concluded that by 1862 freeing the slaves was politically feasible, and militarily useful as a recruitment tool. In part because of it, nearly 200,000 former slaves ultimately joined the Union Army."⁹

Post Civil War

The "Reconstruction" period, immediately following the Civil War, 1866 - 1875, provided black Americans with opportunities in the United States which were previously only dreamed about. During this period, Blacks would participate in government, education, and commerce, as well as their continued service in the armed forces.

Finally, the Constitution of the United States was amended to prohibit slavery. Amendment XIII states: "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdictions." Additionally, the Congress passed the XIV amendment to the constitution.

"All persons born or naturalized, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States . . ."¹⁰ thereby, granting full citizenship to the former slaves.

Furthermore, "on 28 July 1866, the Congress of the United States acted to increase the Army's cavalry by four regiments: the 7th, 8th, 9th and 10th. Congress [further] authorized the Army to recruit black volunteers to fill the 9th and 10th regiments."¹¹ These units "combined with the formation of the 24th and 25th Infantry regiments"¹² would ensure that blacks became full participants in fulfillment of America's "Manifest Destiny" and its continued world wide expansion. Additionally, during this time, the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York and the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Maryland soon had their first black cadets.

Although, the "reconstruction" period provided many "freed men" with the opportunity to attend the academies, racial prejudice ensured their demise. Cadet Henry Baker, one of the first black cadets to attend the Naval Academy, resigned shortly after the following article was published.

An item in the Army and Navy Journal dated March 6, 1875 reads as follows:

The summary dismissal of two cadet midshipmen at the academy from the Southern states for maltreating the colored Cadet Baker [Henry E. of Mississippi] ought to have a beneficial effect. It is difficult to get these young men to appreciate the fact that the Department and the

Superintendent of the Academy are determined, as long as the law authorizes the appointment of Colored Cadets, and they are sent to the institution, to protect them in their rights as much so as if they were white. The assault made upon the Cadet Baker, might have been made on any other one, but those engaged in it admitted that they had long wanted an opportunity to give him "fits", gloried in their success and acknowledged they would repeat the act on a similar pretense.¹³

Blacks would earn commissions as officers in the various armed services during the following period. West Point saw its first black graduate, Henry O. Flipper. And, although Cadet Baker failed to graduate from the Naval Academy, others would follow him and successfully earn their commissions.

However, their reception into the force was not always welcome and their treatment, in many instances, was an extension of their maltreatment at the service academies. An example is Lieutenant Henry O. Flipper. Lieutenant Flipper was the first black officer to serve in the United States Army, and cavalry. However his service was "short-lived" and filled with disappointments. Lieutenant Flipper "was court-martialled for embezzlement. Found not guilty of embezzlement, he was convicted of conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentlemen."¹⁴ This conviction resulted in Lieutenant Flipper's departure from active military duty, and pave the way for his many future accomplishments as a Civil Engineer. However, historians continue to suggest that maybe more was on trial than Flipper's on duty conduct.

"It had been said that Flipper wondered if his enjoyment of horseback riding in the company of a white officer's wife at Fort Concho could have had some effect on the decision of the court martial."¹⁵ Apparently, others did share his sentiments and, about 100 years later, Lieutenant Flippers' conviction was overturned by the Department of Defense.

The end of the Reconstruction period also spelled the end of many opportunities for blacks Americans.

With its decision in the Civil Rights Case in 1883, the Supreme Court completed the virtual nullification of the Reconstruction legislation designed to give equality to the Negro This case, coupled with at least eight others decisions which had been handed down since 1873, permitted the maintenance of segregation [and] discrimination patterns throughout the nation, despite the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth amendments.¹⁶

The Indian Campaigns and Spanish American War

Although, "Jim Crow" was very prevalent during this period, Blacks continued to join the armed forces and serve their nation. Black soldiers began to find their own and truly distinguish themselves during these campaigns.

The 9th and 10th Calvary regiments, and 24th and 25th Infantry regiments saw service in America's western and southwestern frontiers. "The Army established a board of cavalry officers to screen applicants willing to serve in black units . . . but many white officers preferred not to serve in the new black regiments.

For Example George Armstrong Custer refused a lieutenant colonel assignment to the 9th Cavalry.¹⁷ "These Negroes units were present in campaigns against the Apaches, Kiowas, Cheyennes, Comanches, and Arapahoes."¹⁸ It was during this period that the black soldiers earned the famed title: Buffalo Soldiers.

The Spanish-American war resulted in the deployment of black Americans onto foreign soil:

There were black sailors aboard the USS Maine when it was blown up on February 15, 1898, and black soldiers in Cuba at San Juan Hill. Four regular Negro regiments were sent to Cuba in 1898 - the Ninth and Tenth Cavalry, and the Twenty-Fourth and Twenty-Fifth Infantry regiments. Negro Americans found the opportunity in the Spanish-American War to organize volunteer state militias, to train additional commissioned and non-commissioned officers, and to demonstrate their abilities in command. Many Black veterans of the Spanish-American War served in World War I, and provided excellent leadership in organizing newly activated black units.¹⁹

World War I

Using the solid core of leadership that had been nurtured during the Spanish-American War, the black soldiers were organized into two Divisions to fight "the war to end all wars", in Europe. "Negro National Guard Units were the nucleus of the Ninety Third Division . . . and a second division, the Ninety Second. The Ninety Second fought with the American army, while the Ninety Third was [attached] with French troops."²⁰

An interesting observation is that the 93D, with the French, is reported as being far more effective than its sister division serving with the Americans. One explanation is that the black Americans were more readily accepted by the French (whose army was already integrated with their colonial forces), and therefore, the French provided the 93D a genuine opportunity to excel.

While conversely, the 92D's participation was crippled by American bigotry. This excerpt of a military communique to the French Ministry illustrates the sentiment within the American military establishment:

[To the] French Military Mission stationed with the American Army. August 7, 1918.
It is important for French officers who have been called upon to exercise command over black American troops, or to live in close contact with them, to have an exact idea of the position occupied by Negroes in the United States The increasing numbers of Negroes in the United States (about 15 million) creates a menaces of degeneracy. As this danger does not exist for the French race, the French public has become accustom to treat the Negroes with familiarity and indulgence. [These] are matters of grievous concern to the American. They consider them a confront to National Policy. They are afraid that contact with the French in black Americans aspirations which to them (the whites) appear intolerable. Although a citizen of the United States, the black man is regarded as an inferior being²¹

"Nearly four hundred thousand Negroes served during World War I according to Emmett Scott, former civilian aide to the Secretary of War."²²

The French awarded "the Croix de Guerre [the coveted Cross of War] to 171 black troops, and a number of Black Americans even earned American awards for valor, including the Distinguished Service Cross."²³ However, most rewarding for the Black soldiers in Europe during World War I was their experiences with fairness and the absence of "Jim Crow" racism in Europe. These "decent" experiences by black troops in Europe, with fairness and the absence of "Jim Crow", would be an impetus for the demands for civil rights in the United States following World War I.

These experiences at home [with the nation mobilized for war, the labor shortage on the shortage on the domestic front offered unprecedented opportunities for Negroes] and abroad, affected colored Americans and made it understandably impossible for them to return to prewar conditions of discrimination.²⁴

Post World War I

The thousands of returning black soldiers from the European fronts were determined to improve their situation in the United States of America. "The period that stretched from the First to the Second World War represented a subtle but basic turning point in the path of the American Negroes."²⁵ For many, this Post World War I period was the birth of our present day Civil Rights movement. Such organizations as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) had tremendous growth during this period.

As well, Marcus Garvey founded his Pan Africanism movement. Civil unrest and rioting became the vocal tools of the oppressed.

World War II

World War II again found the oppressed black Americans going off to fight for someone else's freedom. But, as in the past, black Americans heard their nation's call, and they responded by the hundreds of thousands. Many of them were drafted, however, a vast number enlisted. For many, the opportunities presented by military duty were far superior to the hopelessness they were experiencing within their segregated societies. "The employment of black soldiers during World War II in combat operations and the establishment of Negro pilot training opened avenues towards advancement and eventual equality for the Blacks in military service."²⁶

Again, blacks would serve in segregated units, "the two largest principally all-black outfits were the 92D Division in the Mediterranean and the 93D in the Pacific theater."²⁷ However, it was during this period that an aggressive effort was made to commission more black officers. "The first Negro Officer Candidate School (OCS) to graduate in England occurred 3 February 1943.

All 14 candidates completed the course."²⁸

Also, during this period blacks were afforded opportunities previously forbidden, e.g., pilot training and command of combat units. "Black officers served with the all Negro 761st Tank Battalion, under the command of General George Patton. The unit distinguished itself in the Battle of the Bulge"²⁹ and is credited with first liberating inmates of Hitler's concentration camps in France.

While Blacks were contributing significantly to world peace and tranquility during this period, the situation at home was not improving on the civil rights front. Although, "under the NAACP leadership [during this period] the objectives of the Negro protest movement during the interwar years, 1915 to 1941, had been to seek reforms through the legal and judicial processes,"³⁰ the fruits of these efforts were slow, to say the least, and, in some instances, justice was not to be because of bigotry and racism.

Post World War II

When the war ended, in 1945, black Americans returned home, to the United States, to parades, but not equal treatment. [African Americans'] dissent with racial policies mounted throughout the war and gained impetus at the war's end.

The public climate in the [African American] camp called for a change in the rigid World War II military policy . . .

Eisenhower, [then] Army Chief of Staff, directed that a board be established to provide recommendations on how to use Negroes in peacetime.³¹

The findings of this board reflect the contradictions of that time:

The report of the [General] Gillem board, which was published 4 March 1946, under the title, 'Utilization of Negro Manpower in the Postwar Army Policy'. The report's major points were: 1) maintenance of a 10 per cent quota for Negroes, 2) employment of Negroes in regimental size units or smaller; rather than Divisions; 3) the promise of encouraging expansion of the number of Negro officers; 4) utilization of skilled NCO's (noncommissioned officers) in overhead and special units permitting limited integration; 5) assignments of Negro units to locales where sentiments were favorable to colored personnel; 6) integration of on-base buses, recreational facilities and officers' messes, where this policy does not infringe on local customs.³²

President Truman Acts

President Roosevelt's death propelled President Truman into the midst of a civil rights struggle and racial discontent. Earlier, in chapter 1, the question was raised: "What were the critical events that resulted in the realization that the status quo must change? Was it the violence, changing social mores, or refinement of the social consciousness? . . . or, was it something special about the 'significant mover', President Truman?"

President Truman's motivation does not appear to be from a "liberal's" mindset, as previously mentioned. President Truman is on record as having feelings that reflected his racist time:

Although [President] Truman toned down his racist expressions after entering the White House, he continued to use racial slurs in private conversation for the rest of his life . . . In 1911, the year he turned 27, [President] Truman wrote to his future wife, Bess: I think one man is as good as another so long as he's honest and decent and not a nigger or a Chinaman. Uncle Will says that the Lord made a white man from dust, a nigger from mud, then He threw up what was left and it came down a Chinaman. (Uncle Will) does hate Chinese and Japs.³³ .. So do I. It is race prejudice, I guess.

So, the question still must be asked: Why did President Truman take the lead on civil rights, and desegregate the armed forces? What motivated this apparently bigoted man to possess the vision, and moral courage, to declare segregation wrong, and do something about it? Some have said:

after succeeding Franklin D. Roosevelt, [President] Truman rose above his prejudices. In 1946, when told of assaults on black World War II veterans in the south, he said, My God! I had no idea it was as terrible as that. We've got to do something!³⁴

The "something" that resulted was the appointment of a federal committee to study civil rights in America, and their findings were very disturbing to President Truman.

Based on their findings President Truman initiated several initiatives, among which was this Civil Rights Message to Congress:

I recommend, therefore, that the Congress enact legislation at this session directed

toward the following objectives:

1) Establishing a permanent Commission on Civil Rights, a Joint Congressional Committee on Civil Rights, and a Civil Rights Division in the Department of Justice; 2) Strengthening existing civil rights statutes; 3) Providing federal protection against lynching; 4) Protecting more adequately the right to vote; 5) Establishing a Fair Employment Practice Commission to prevent unfair discrimination in employment; 6) Prohibiting discrimination in interstate transportation facilities; 7) providing home rule and suffrage in presidential elections for the residents of the District of Columbia. . . .³⁵

However, this question has continued: "What motivated President Truman to desegregate the armed forces?"
Was it A. Phillip Randolph's threat to march on Washington?
Or, was it to garner the black votes for the democratic party?

Even after World War II the armed forces were still racially segregated. But the notable accomplishments of Negro soldiers in the War, as well as the sense of equality they had enjoyed while off duty in Europe, led many Negroes to protest against tangiest this discrimination. A. Phillip Randolph and other leaders began to make plans for a mass civil disobedience campaign against the draft unless Negro demands for integration were met. On July 26, 1948 President Truman issued [an] executive order establishing a committee to report on racial conditions in the armed forces and recommend ways to promote integration.³⁶

Also, Executive Order 9981 provided for the immediate desegregation of the armed forces, by stating:

Whereas it is essential that there be maintained in the armed services of the United States the highest standards of democracy, with equality of treatment and opportunity for all those who serve in our country's defense:

Now, therefore, I, in exercise of the authority vested in me as President of the United States, and as Commander in Chief of the armed services, it is hereby ordered as follows:

1. It is hereby declared to be the policy of the President that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed forces without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin . . .
2. There shall be created in the National Military Establishment an advisory committee to be known as the President's Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services . . .³⁷

Unfortunately, the Executive Order's implementation was not executed with "all deliberate speed", or zeal. There was overall hostility, within and without the armed forces, that met President Truman's Executive Order desegregating the military. Interesting, General Eisenhower's [then Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff] objection and comments regarding integrating blacks into the armed forces is being compared with the current Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, General Powell, comments regarding the integration of homosexuals into the armed forces. In both instances the Chairmen did not support the actions of their Commander in Chiefs.

Although President Truman's motivation remains in debate, the effect of this decision was undoubtedly the most monumental of its time, equalling Jackie Robinson's arrival to Major League Baseball.

In response to the President's order, then Secretary of Defense, Louis Johnson issued this implementing directive:

1. a. It is the policy of the National Military Establishment that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the Armed Services without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin.
- b. To assist in achieving uniform application of this policy, the following supplemental policies are announced:
 - (1) To meet the requirements of the Services for qualified individuals, all personnel will be considered on the basis of individual merit and ability and must qualify according to the prescribed standards for enlistment, attendance at schools, promotion, assignment to specific duties, etc.
 - (2) All individuals, regardless of race, will be accorded equal opportunity for appointment, advancement, professional improvement, promotion and retention in their respective components of the National Military Establishment.
 - (3) Some units may continue to be manned with Negro personnel; however, all Negroes will not necessarily be assigned to Negro units. Qualified Negro personnel shall be assigned to fill any type of position vacancy in organizations or overhead installations without regard to race.
 - (4) Each Department is directed to examine its present practices and determine what forward steps can and should be made in the light of this policy and in view of Executive Order 9981, dated July 26, 1948, which directs that this policy shall be put into effect as rapidly as possible with due regard to the time required to effectuate any necessary changes without impairing efficiency or morale.
 - (5) Following the completion of this study, each Department shall state, in writing, its own detailed implementation of general policy stated herein and such supplemental policies as may be determined by each Service to meet its own specific needs. These statements shall be submitted to the Chairman of the Personnel Policy Board,

Office of the Secretary of Defense, not later than 1 May 1949.
/s/ Louis Johnson 38

The implementation of Secretary Johnson's Directive would be slow, to say the least. One year later, in May 1950, the Presidential committee issued its report and guidelines, Freedom to Serve. Although the Secretary of Defense Directive issued by the in April 1949 was an official step toward fulfillment of the President's original order, the harsh realities of the Korean War accelerated the pace of integration within fighting units.³⁹

The Korean War Era

The Korean conflict would be the end of "legally" segregated units in the United States Armed Forces. Although, de facto segregation would linger, the law within the armed forces would become integration.

On June 25, 1950, South Korea was attacked by North Korean troops along the Onjin peninsula northwest of Seoul Black soldiers were a part of a United Nations 'police action' to force North Korean troops back to beyond the thirty-eighth parallel. Black soldiers were a part of the war, first in the segregated regiments, among them the First, Second, and Third Battalions of the Twenty-Fourth Infantry Regiment, Twenty-Fifth Infantry Division and, after October 1, 1951, when the U.S. Army started to implement President Truman's order to integrate the armed forces, distributed throughout the military in an attempt to integrate all units as quickly as possible.⁴⁰

Although the Korean conflict ended in 1953, its ending added

significant impetus to the vehicle of integration and affirmative actions. Many of Korean War veterans returned to the United States "enlightened". Enlightened to the understanding of equality, and the feeling of redemption.

The feeling of redemption was generated by a sense of giving, and a desire for reward. No more would rhetoric be sufficient! From this point on actions would become the watch word for the African Americans in America, and their quest for justice.

Vietnam Conflict

Vietnam was America's first fully integrated armed conflict. "From 1962 onwards, a new black soldier has been emerging - not a laborer or body servant, [nor] a part-time soldier or a rare hero, but an ordinary soldier."⁴¹ Unfortunately, for the armed services fighting the battles in Vietnam, societal problems within the civilian society, would "creep" into the armed forces. Therefore, it should not be surprising that inequities within America, identified by the Kerner Commission on Civil Disorder, exhibited themselves in the Department of Defense. As America burned in the summer of 1967,

approximately 21,519 black fighting men were in Vietnam . . . At the end of 1967, 56,000 Black fighting men were in [Vietnam], out of the 300,000 Black men in uniform. Blacks accounted for 25% of the U. S. dead in Vietnam.⁴²

Returning Vietnam veterans provided acceleration to the Civil rights strife within America.

After serving 365 days in the jungles of Southeast Asia, these "hardened" veterans returned to America with "enlightened" expectations, and a realization that the racial status quo in America, and within the Department of Defense, would not suffice. The Black servicemen fighting for freedom in Vietnam and Indochina, also, felt that these "freedoms" should also be extended throughout their communities in America; particularly, throughout the Department of Defense, which ordered their service in Vietnam.

Deserts Shield and Storm

Southwest Asia, and Deserts Shield and Storm, founded the top military position occupied by an African American, General Colin Powell. "During our campaign in the Gulf, Blacks made up approximately 20% of U. S. forces, [and] it [was] not unexpected to have a company, battalion, brigade squadron or the [Deputy CENTCOM commander] led by a Black American."⁴³ The ability to defeat the third largest army in the world, with minimal casualties and maximum destruction, and without inter racial conflicts, was a tribute to the success of the Department of Defense's Affirmative Action Plan.

Race Relations Education and Affirmative Actions within the Department of Defense

Reviewing the success made from Vietnam, to the Southwest Asia, will summarize a dedicated and focused

Affirmative Action program within the Department of Defense. The accomplishments illustrated during Desert Storm did not just happen, but were the result of careful planning, and a determined endstate.

After recognizing the symptoms of racism within the Department of Defense, a strategy was developed to conquer it and this study will evaluate the effectiveness of that plan, and its results. The racial problems throughout the Department of Defense, and identified during the Vietnam era, required a concerted effort to neutralize it. And the military likes to boast that true to its history, "it attacked the problem straight on."

The Department of Defense's successes in Affirmative Actions and Equal Opportunity Training were not achieved through happenstance, but, rather, through a detailed and calculated education and affirmative actions programs.

In 1962, President Kennedy reestablished the Committee on Equal Opportunity in the Armed Forces (the Gessel Committee) and asked it to look into the general problems of equal opportunity The Committee submitted its report to the President in June 1963 Major finding were these:

- Black advancements in the military since 1949 had been meager, and much remained to be done to achieve equality of opportunity.
- Blacks in the military and their families were suffering daily humiliation and degradation in communities near bases at which they were stationed.
- No one in the military was charged with responsibility to listen to equal opportunity complaints.

- Installation commanders lacked specific directives to guide them in dealing with off base discrimination and, in fact, did not view this as a military command responsibility.

The committee report had a far-reaching impact on equal opportunity in the Department of Defense. Although, the military services were upset by its recommendations, all major recommendations were implemented and were the impetus for many of the equal opportunity initiatives in the military today. One of the major outcomes of the report was the Secretary of Defense's issuance of DOD Directive 5120.36, Equal Opportunity in the Armed Forces, dated 26 July 1963. This objective, the first of its kind, accomplished several objectives Thus it was that equal opportunity programs became firmly established in the Department of Defense.⁴⁴ The 1970's, a decade of social turmoil, grew out of the ferment of the 1960's. Explosive incidents, including race riots, sit-ins, refusals to serve, and racial clashes, occurred in every service.⁴⁵

From these beginnings within the Department of Defense, evolved the affirmative actions successes being highlighted today. The Department of Defense's foundation was rooted in Education. Following excerpts from Race Relations Research in the U. S. Army in the 1970s: A Collection of Selected Readings, detail the events and reactions which resulted into the DOD's affirmative action program today.

Initially, the Armed Forces appeared to be immune to the social unrest and violence that had swept the civilian society during the late sixties. Generally, Army leadership felt that this was because of the great strides made in military equal opportunity As a result of these occurrences in the late sixties, the SECDEF,

acting on the hypothesis that education was the answer to the type of problems facing the services, convened an interservice task force to develop a race relations education program to be used throughout the Armed Forces . . . Army Regulation 600-21, of 12 May 1965, ensured nondiscrimination in federally assisted programs of all kinds, and a revised version of AR 600-21 was issued the following week. But that August brought the Watts riots, heralding the beginning of a new era in race relations in America. That year also produced the beginning of large-scale escalation of the war in Vietnam, and with it came the first hints of new types of complaints about discrimination in the Army. The next few years brought increasing war, increasing civil disturbance, and the growth of movements encompassing other minority groups - Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, and others. The Army was responding by steadily increasing the scope of its activities in the area of equal opportunity and treatment. During this period, the Armed Forces had proudly pointed to the continuing lack of violent incidents within the services. However, the summer of 1969 brought the problem more fully into the public eye. Major violent incidents were reported at Forts Dix, Belvoir, Carson, Gordon, Hood, Jackson, Knox, Lee, Sheridan, Bragg, and Fort Sill. Serious racial incidents in all major overseas areas were also reported.

In 1970, the first worldwide Army Race Relations/Equal Opportunity (RR/EO) Conference was held at Fort Benning, Georgia. This conference was attended by a host of General Officers, representatives from each command, and DA staff. Its purpose were to examine the race-related problems facing the Army, provide medium for discussion of measures taken by individual commanders to resolve racial problems, and develop recommendations for future race relations programs. In September 1969, the Army Chief of Staff determined that instruction in race relations would be incorporated into the Army educational system, and directed Headquarters, Continental Army Command (CONARC) to undertake this task.

In 1971, major policy changes were announced by the Secretary of the Army: Commanders were authorized to impose restrictive sanctions against any rental facility whose owner or manager was found to be discriminating on the basis of race; Housing Referral Offices were established Army-wide to ensure that soldiers did not rent from discriminatory landlords; changes that were designed to lessen the chances of racial discrimination and to protect the rights of individuals soldiers were made to the nonjudicial punishment procedures; minority group representation was required on all promotion boards; and, the Army sent participants to the first class of the Dept. of Defense Race Relations Institute (DRRI) in Florida. DRRI, chartered to develop an training program for all services (except the Marine Corps) and to train instructors for this program, developed a program of instruction in 1971 that had a far-reaching impact on the design and conduct of race relations education and race relations training in the Army. The policy governing Army race relations education and training, which had been issued piecemeal, was modified and published as AR 600-42, Race Relations Education in the Army, in February 1974. The training encompassed the same three levels of individuals with the same objectives; Level One became Racial Awareness Training for Soldiers; Level Two became Racial Awareness Training for Leaders; and Level Three became Racial Awareness Training for Managers. Racial Awareness Program (RAP II), under this regulation, unit training was defined as a comprehensive racial awareness program designed to stimulate interracial communication and to promote racial harmony in units. The DA Affirmative Action Plan of 1972 was revised in August 1975. The focus of this revision was to emphasize management by objectives and the use of the plan as a minority and gender personnel management document building long-term management into race relations and equal opportunity. The prime objective was to place responsibility for Affirmative Action in the hands of commanders and their managers in order to infuse affirmative actions into the traditional system of command management.

Army Regulation 600-21 was greatly modified and published with the title of "Equal Opportunity in the Army" and with an effective date of 1 September 1977. A partial listing of the numerous changes follows: The title was changed from RR/EO to just EO. This was done to offset the perception that the program was concerned only with racial minorities (connote by race relations), and to reaffirm that the program was concerned with all members of the Army. The new regulation consolidated AR 600-21, which reflected primary concern with equal opportunity (Affirmative Action), and AR 600-42, which governed race relations education and training, into one regulation covering the equal opportunity program as an integrated program. Major Commands were required to issue supplementary directives. This was due to, among other things, the new requirement for each MACOM to submit to HQDA an annual narrative and statistical report outlining the progress made in achieving the AAP goals. The regulation recommended appropriate reporting dimensions and suggested a reporting format. The regulation defined and described policies, procedures for unit training in EO, and the required organization and staffing of an EO office. However, it placed the responsibility for establishing unit-level training requirements on the MACOM, and allowed members of the chain of command merely to participate in unit EO seminars in lieu of leading such seminars. This was a direct reversal of the requirement of the earlier AR 600-42. The regulation also set forth policy governing the selection, training, and use of local personnel as resource personnel, or as Unit Discussion Leaders (UDL). This regulation, which based many of its changes on the results of research under the Army EO Research Program (to be described later), represented, on one hand a stronger, integrated program with realistic policy and guidance; on the other hand, it reflected the strong desires of unit commanders to develop their own training programs. In effect, the EO program was once again "decentralized." Equal Opportunity Training (Individual).

In 1977, the concept of racial awareness training for individuals was changed to a concept of equal opportunity with two distinct levels of participants: entry-level and individual training for Army leaders, supervisors, and managers.

The DA Affirmative Action Plan of 1975 was revised and published as DA PAM 600-26 in October 1978, with emphasis on the following: The previous DA AAP focused almost exclusively on racial minorities, excluded ethnic minorities, and did not provide sufficient coverage to women. New goals in the revised plan extended coverage to ethnic minorities and women in all key functional areas. Added emphasis on ethnic minorities and women was not to be accomplished at the expense of racial minorities. More emphasis was placed on the involvement of commanders and appropriate staff functional managers in goal development and implementation. The plan emphasized that the responsibility for AAP goals rested with the commander or staff agency manager who had the resources and authority to influence goal outcome. Goal ownership and accountability were fundamental elements of overall plan effectiveness. The EO staff was no longer responsible for the development of AAPs but would provide assistance in their development, as requested. In sum, over a period of 5 years, there was a shift not only in the focus of the subject matter of unit training, but also in the delivery system.⁴⁶

Once the Department of Defense committed itself to equal employment opportunity, its commitment was translated into an affirmative actions plan, with the mechanisms to monitor their progress. It is these tools, The Department of the Affirmative Actions Plan, DA PAM 600-26, and the annual Equal Opportunity Assessment report, which will provide the data to be compared in chapter 4.

CHAPTER THREE

MAJOR LEAGUE BASEBALL

Historical Overview

Professional baseball's history can be classified into three eras: Before, During and After Jackie Robinson's arrival to the Brooklyn Dodgers in 1946. Although, the exact birthday of baseball is debatable, its roots were clearly planted in the early 1800 before the Civil War.

It began more than one hundred years ago, in December, 1867. The Civil War was two-and-a-half years in the past. Before the war, only a few gentlemen amateurs around New York City played baseball, but the game spread rapidly in army camps and military prisons both North and South.¹

Regardless of the birth date of baseball, the sport's infancy was spent under "Jim Crow" laws and racial segregation. Unquestionably, between 1898 and 1946 baseball, "the national pastime", existed in two worlds, Black and White.

Negro baseball grew out of the fact that for a long period, 1898 to 1946, black men were barred from the major leagues and the recognized minor leagues in organized baseball by a gentleman's agreement. Most of these black teams, some of major league quality, played a majority of their games against white teams.²

This "gentleman's agreement" evolved from a national dilemma at the conclusion of the Civil War, what to do about the new black American citizens?

In 1867, there were more than 100 baseball clubs in the North, and the game's first league, the National Association of Base Ball Players, was nine years old. The NABBP addressed itself to the Negro question and came down on the side of repression, barring Negroes and the clubs to which they belonged from membership The Negro was a political subject in 1867, but politics were secondary consideration for the NABBP. Simple prejudice brought baseball's first color line. The association's members were all Northern, but most shared the Southerners' belief that the Negroes were inferior and not fit company for white gentlemen.³

The Black baseball league, commonly referred to as the Negro League, evolved out of a love of the sport, and the separation policy of the time. It is important to note that foreign black players, i.e., black Cubans, and Canadians, were also not permitted into the white Major League organization. Interesting, some of the old teams of the Negro League adopted names to conceal that they were black, such as the Cuban Giants. As reported in the book, Only The Ball Was White, an Esquire magazine article recounts this situation:

They passed as foreigners- Cubans, as they finally decided- hoping to conceal the fact that they were just [black] American hotel waiters, and talked a gibberish to each other on the field which, they hoped, sounded like Spanish. The New York Giants were even then baseball idols, and so the name, Cuban Giants, was settled upon for the new club.⁴

Although the Cuban Giant's deception did not gain them entry into the Major League organization, it did provide them opportunities to play many of the white Major League teams. As shown in this dispatch from the 1888 Indianapolis Freeman:

The Cuban Giants, the famous baseball club, have defeated the New Yorks, 4 games out of 5, and are virtually champions of the world. The St. Louis Browns, Detroit's and Chicago's, afflicted with Negrophobia and unable to bear the odium of being beaten by colored men, refused to accept their challenge.⁵

This paradox, unable to join the all white Major League organization, but occasionally allowed to play them, would haunt black players until 1946. Interestingly, research reveals that Jackie Robinson was not the first black American to play in the all white major league.

The annals of American sports are replete with the names of Black men and women who helped refine and define the games [our] country loves. Major League baseball, actually admitted its first black player in 1884- Moses Fleetwood Walker, a catcher for the Toledo Mudhens of the old American Association.⁶

Although the opportunities were not promising, many blacks partook in the game of baseball. Before Jackie Robinson, there were black players that are legendary as great players, although restricted from the Major League. "Players such as Leroy (Satchel) Paige, Josh Gibson and James (Cool Papa) Bell, are [renowned] baseball players, and, were among the greatest ever to play the game."⁷

However, from a historical perspective, it was the deliberate decision of the Brooklyn Dodgers' organization to recruit and sign a black player, Jackie Robinson, that is viewed as the grand opening of Major League Baseball to all players with the ability.

Earlier, in chapter 1, the question was asked, "What was the motivation of professional baseball to believe the timing was right for integration?" One factor was the great success of the old Negro League, and the economic potential of the inclusion of the fans of the Negro League "superstars" into the Major League.

In its heyday, the [Negro League] East-West game, the biggest sporting event in Black America at the time, consistently out drew its White major league counterpart and regularly attracted 50,000 fans to Comiskey Park [home of the major league Chicago White Sox]. The financial success of the East-West game - which some say fueled Dodgers' owner Branch Rickey's resolve to integrate the major league.⁸

The assumption, made by the Dodgers, that integration would result in increased fan participation was correct.

Throughout [Jackie] Robinson's major league career many Black fans paid to see him and his teammates play throughout the National League. In 1947, Robinson's first major league season, the Dodgers attracted 1,807,526 fans into Ebbets field, a National League record, and attracted 1,863,542 on the road. When he played it was said that Black fans came from as far away as New Orleans.⁹

It would be the successes on the field, and at the ticket

office, which will propel the full integration of Major League baseball.

Before we look at the successes of today, it is essential to delve into the key actors [Major League and Negro League baseball] and their actions and reactions which enabled today's successes to manifest themselves.

The Negro League

Although, black players were forbidden from playing within the white league, this prohibition did not hamper the formation of their own league. "Nothing is known about the earliest Negro clubs, but by 1867 teams were sufficiently well-organized, at least in the North, to have challenge matches for supremacy."¹⁰ Through 1946, the Negro League evolved into a complete organization. There was the "Negro National League, Eastern Colored League, Negro American League, and the World Series."¹¹

Additionally, as previously stated, their East-West All Star games were very well received, and supported by the fans of the Negro League with their attendance and money. In fact, the Negro League fans' attendance was most impressive; particularly, considering the financial gyration and the economic crisis of that time.

[In 1923] Some financial data on the Negro National League [reflected that] attendance at league games was 402,436, an average of 1,650 per game. Total receipts were \$197,218.

Unlike their white counterparts, in the major league, the Negro League incorporated a cheaper semipro system, rather than the more expensive farm system. The book, Only The Ball Was White, provided the following insight into the limited opportunities to "break into" the Negro League, particularly through the semipro system.

When a young player was invited for a trial with a big Negro club, he knew he had to make good right away, or it was to the semipros. There was no place else to send him, for Negro clubs could not afford a farm system. We did have a farm team one year at Chattanooga, but it was semipro team. If you were a young boy who wasn't quite good enough for the [team], we sent him there, but he wouldn't stay. Life in Negro baseball was tough. It was tough even in our league, and when you went down to that league it was tougher. They would try to pay a salary but they couldn't. So they would just give the player some money once in a while. We sent two players down there and both of them left and went home, said they couldn't make it. So we never did get any play from down there for the [team].¹²

During the period of the Negro League, a players desire to play was often his only compensation for playing. The life of a Negro League baseball player was not very enviable.

A promising rookie could expect to make \$125 to \$150 a month on one of the top clubs . . . As a rule, the big clubs paid a guaranteed salary . . . but most paid their players on the "co-op plan." Under this system, the team owner took a percentage of the receipts after expenses and the players divided the remainder.¹³

Additionally, the players of the Negro League did not play at the best fields.

The playing fields of Negroes baseball varied from sandlots in farm villages to major league stadiums. When they were "barnstorming," black teams played on whatever field their host offered.¹⁴

Simply stated, the treatment and conditions that black players experienced reflected the "Jim Crow" period of that time, as evidenced by this excerpt from Bud Flower, a black baseball player around the turn of the 19th century, in Only The Ball Was White:

It was hard picking for a colored player this year. I didn't pick up a living; I just existed. I was down in the lower Illinois country and in Missouri, cross-roading with teams in the little towns My skin is against me. If I had not been quite so black, I might have caught on as a Spaniard or something of that kind. The race prejudice is so strong that my black skin barred me.¹⁵

Understandably, the "stars" of the Negro League desired improved compensations and playing conditions through participation within the all white, and restrictive Major League baseball organization. This desire would be the impetus for their repeated attempts to gain national prominence, and finally, in 1946, admittance to the Major League.

The Major League

The history of the Major League is comparable, but inverse to the Negro League. While members of the Negro League

suffered from poor facilities, no pay and a weak supporting organization; the Major League was the standard of measurement for success. Although, the white baseball players' salary did not equal the "mega-salaries" of today, the pay was adequate, and the accommodations and celebrity status afforded an enjoyable, in fact, an almost enviable, life-style.

The Major League offered an opportunity to play a "child's game", with compensation. Additionally, the Major League's farm system enabled those with the dream, an opportunity to fail. By all appearance, the hardships experienced by the black baseball players in the Negro League, were not shared by their white counterparts in the Major League. As previously mentioned, the forerunner to what would evolve into the Major League Baseball Association was the National Association of Base Ball Players (NABBP). The NABBP was founded on the principle of segregation and this principle would guide baseball until 1946.

However, the research reveals that as early as 1929 some owners were investigating the potential of adding black players to their clubs.

[W]hen [Philadelphia Athletics] played in the '29 World Series, they were short ballplayers, and there was a rumor around here that Connie Mack [the owner] was trying to get Biz Mackey and Santop [black players] to play.¹⁶

So the question must be asked: "What were the prohibitions which precluded the admission of black players onto white clubs until 1946?" The assumption is made that the segregation of white and black baseball players was the result of a written covenant. However, research reveals that "there were no written rules barring [Blacks] from organized baseball."¹⁷ Although, there appear to be no written prohibitions, there were monumental unwritten societal "understandings." The reasons advanced during this period for baseball's color line (on the rare occasions when it was mentioned) were substantially the same as they were in 1946, when it was finally breached. They can be summarized thus:

- (1) About a third of all major league players were Southerners and they would not play with or against Negroes.
- (2) Negroes could not travel with a big league club, because hotels would not accommodate them.
- (3) Clubs trained in the South, where Negroes and whites were forbidden by law to play together.
- (4) Fans might riot in the stands if there was trouble on the field between a white and Negro player.
- (5) Negroes were not good enough to play in the big league anyway.¹⁸

The bottom line is that each of these "justifications" lacked credibility, particularly, reason number 5. Had black players lacked the abilities, then there would not have been an integration issue. The fact that blacks, given the opportunity, could not play well enough to

play in the major league, would have precluded their participation, without the consideration of race. But, race was the predominant discriminator, and this fact was not being addressed.

The reluctance to address the real issue, race, the segregation issue was confronted as history has repeatedly demonstrated other indefensible position have been resolved. When defending a poor position, sometimes truth is the first victim. For example, although the law, both judicial and societal, precluded blacks and whites from playing together, during the earliest period, teams from the Major and Negro Leagues habitually played each other, when it was mutually advantageous. Therefore, the societal or legal barriers were not insurmountable, and given the right motivations, could be overcome. Ultimately, in 1945, the Brooklyn Dodgers would reject the hypocrisy and sign Jackie Robinson and open the door for the integration of baseball.

Jackie Robinson Arrives

"In 1941, under a threat of a 'March on Washington' by thousands of Negroes, President Franklin D. Roosevelt had issued an executive order establishing a Fair Employment Practices Commission."¹⁹ SoThis action, and the resulting "passage of state laws barring discrimination in employment"²⁰ is viewed as instrumental in the timing of Jackie Robinson's signing by the Brooklyn Dodgers.

In 1944, the New York State Legislature began considering the Ives-Quinn Bill to forbid discrimination in hiring on the basis of race, creed, color, or national origin. It was not aimed specially at baseball's color line, but only the myopic big league operator could fail to see that it meant eventual legal challenges to the "gentleman's agreement."²¹

The pivotal individual in this process was Branch Rickey, "who had demonstrated his far sightedness before coming to Brooklyn by inventing the farm system, an innovation with which he had established a pennant-winning dynasty for the Saint Louis Cardinals."²² This decent man had made a vow, after earlier witnessing discrimination's ugliness in baseball.

[He] could think back to a vow made forty years earlier when he was a baseball coach at Ohio Wesleyan University and his Negro catcher, Charles Thomas, was Jim Crowed at a hotel in South Bend, Indiana. He remembered Thomas' cry. Rickey had promised himself that day he would do whatever he could to still that cry when the opportunity presented itself.²³

This is not to imply that Branch's underlying motivation was social consciousness, because it was not. The primary motivation then was, as it is today, creating the best team with the best chance to win a pennant, and the World Series. To mask his intention, thereby averting a public backlash, "Rickey disguised his scouting of Negroes by announcing that he intended to start a Negro team called the Brooklyn Brown Dodgers. . . .

With the Brown Dodgers in business, Branch Rickey was able to turn loose his ace scouts, . . . and, the name that repeatedly surfaced was Jackie Robinson.²⁴

[Jackie Robinson] was born on January 31, 1919, on an plantation near Cario, Georgia, the youngest of five children. When he was barely six months old, his father left the family to make a life in Texas. A year later, Mrs. Robinson, hoping for a better life for her children than Georgia offered, took her brood to California . . . Jackie grew up in a mixed neighborhood and quickly established himself as a versatile athlete. In high school, Pasadena Junior College, and at UCLA, he earned growing fame as a baseball player [and other sports]. By 1941, he was widely acclaimed as the best all around athlete on the West Coast, if not in the country. After three years on limited service in the Army (because of chips in an ankle), Jackie Robinson was discharged as a second lieutenant and joined the Monarchs [of the Negro League] with a verbal contract for \$400 a month.²⁵

Branch Rickey's selection of Jackie Robinson was no fluke.

He knew the score of baseball's racial prejudice at that time The black player [selected] had to be college bred, one of history's greatest all around athletes, as honest as Jesus, as clean as laundered white on white, as pure as Ivory, as emotionless as the Sphinx, as cool as the Sky Blue Waters.²⁶

Jackie Robinson was selected as the black man with these traits.

Jackie Robinson's arrival to the Major League in 1946, although he signed his contract in 1945, was met with every emotion from delight to anger. His initial assignment

was with the Montreal Royals in the International League, a part of Triple A baseball. "The 'big announcement' of Jackie's promotion to the National League Brooklyn Dodgers was made on April 10, 1947, during an exhibition game between Montreal and Brooklyn."²⁷

Not as well known is that Montreal also had signed a second black baseball player, John Wright, a pitcher, shortly after signing Jackie Robinson. This was helpful during Robinson's initial "initiation" into the major league, because he had someone who truly understood, and, sympathized with what Jackie was forced to endure.

In Baltimore, where racists threatened a boycott of the stadium if Robinson or Wright played, they suffered a barrage of racial abuse. As far north as the city of Syracuse, they were baited by the home club with the most vicious insults.²⁸

The emotional price upon Robinson and Wright was high. Particularly considering that they were restrained and "under tight reins and [their] lips sealed by Branch Rickey's admonition that they could fight back only with bat, ball and gloves."²⁹ This stipulation tested the desires of both players, however:

John Wright succumbed to the terrible strain of pioneering. After only two appearance in relief for the Royals, he was optioned to Three Rivers, Quebec, in the Class C Border League . . . He was released unconditionally by the Dodger organization.³⁰

Jackie Robinson would endure and go on to a highly successful career within the Major League.

The Jackie Robinson Era

"Jackie Robinson played 10 seasons with the Dodgers. During this decade the Dodgers won six National League pennants."³¹ Even though his most discussed accomplishments have been with a bat, ball or glove, it was unequivocally Jackie's dominance on the playing field which hurried the integration of all major league teams. But, of equal importance was his conduct when faced with the rabid and hate of frenzied fans, and players, who did not support his presence within the major league.

Many times Jackie would slide into a base jump up wiping his face, says Joe Black, who later became Jackie Robinson's Brooklyn Dodgers teammate. Fans thought he was wiping perspiration, but in actuality as opposing player had spit in his face. 'I don't know any other player that could have gone through what he did and been successful.'³²

Although, he was continually confronted with hatred, Jackie's regal performance, on and off the field, seem to elevate him above the ugliness, and, ultimately into the hearts of most Americans. Ironically, as the Major League was attempting the precarious act of integration, so was the Negro League.

Eddie Klepp, a white pitcher, played with the Cleveland Buckeyes in the Negro American League Ironically, Klepp was a victim of Jim Crow, for he was forbidden to train with the Buckeyes in the South.³³

However, unquestionably the greatest level of desegregation was happening within the Major League, with

blacks following Jackie Robinson into the white Major League, and not vice versa. "[By June 1946] the sixth Negro had entered organized baseball when Manny McIntyre, a young shortstop with no experience in the Negro League by a St. Louis farm team in the Border League."³⁴ By 1949, a Negro League team would become incorporated into the Major League farm system.

In 1949, the New York Cubans signed a working agreement with the New York Giants, making them the only black farm of a major league team in history.³⁵

However, this is not to mislead one into believing that once the decision to integrate was made, it happened rapidly, and without despicable incidents. For, the route of integrating baseball was paved with numerous challenges, and episodes, that truly challenged the convictions of Jackie Robinson, the Dodger organization, and, [then] baseball Commissioner A. B. Chandler who permitted this "experiment."

For Jackie Robinson, the man, 1947 was a nightmare. He faced the usual strains of a rookie trying to make good in the big time; . . . these pressures were squared because he had to gain the acceptance of his white teammates, some of them sullen mutineers, and endure in silence the vilification of players on other clubs . . . At home he found hate letters, some threatening him with death, the kidnapping of his infant son, Jackie, Jr., and assaults on his wife.³⁶

Although the route of integrating baseball was impeded with many unpleasant occurrences, black players would continue to flock to major league baseball. And, with the

success onthe field that the Dodgers were having with their black player, Jackie Robinson, other clubs would follow suit, and integrate.

For Jackie Robinson, the player, 1947 was beautiful. He batted .297, led the Dodgers in stolen bases with 29 and in runs scored with 125, and was tied for the club home-run leadership at 12 with Pee Wee Reese. The Dodgers won the National League pennant for the first time since 1941 and Dixie Walker, a Georgian who had been one of the ringleaders in the insurrection during spring training, voiced the general view that Robinson had done as much as any player to bring the pennant to Brooklyn. Although the Yankees beat the Dodgers in the World Series, this disappointment was tempered for Robinson by his selection as National League Rookie of the Year.³⁷

Jackie Robinson's success would provide the biggest motivation for allowing black players the opportunity to play with the Major League. However, there was an inverse relationship to the Negro League, because of this reallocation of players to the Major League:

Inevitably, as full integration became a reality on organized baseball's player rosters, prospective stars were signed by big league organizations directly out of high school and placed on their minor league affiliates, thus eliminating the middle man - the Negro clubs.³⁸

By 1947, the American League would also have signed their first black baseball player, Larry Doby.

In 1947, Larry Doby, a brilliant outfielder, became the first Black player to play in the American League when he was signed by the Cleveland Indians. The

following year he promptly hit .301 Doby became the first black player to hit a home run in a World Series.³⁹

By 1954, "Superstar to be Hank Aaron had joined the Boston Braves and soon had established himself as the National League's heaviest hitter."⁴⁰ Undoubtedly, with the success of black players within the Major League, more and more would be recruited, and the demise of the old Negro League was inevitable.

[Integration] of the major league continued at a slow and methodical pace, with teams turning first to the Negro League to pluck their best talent It wasn't until the Boston Red Sox signed Elijah (Pumpsie) Green in July 1959 that each major league team had at least one black player on its roster.⁴¹

By 1960, the old Negro League would be virtually dead. "Only four clubs were left . . . and the last vestige of the great days of Negro baseball, died at the end of that season."⁴²

Jackie Robinson ended his baseball career with the Dodgers in 1957, however his departure was as eventful as his career had begun.

On December 13, 1956, the Brooklyn Dodgers traded Jackie Robinson, who was 37 years old, to the New York Giants, for pitcher Dick Littlefield and reportedly \$35,000. On January 5, 1957, Robinson announced his retirement from baseball, [thereby] cancelling the trade In 1962, his first year of eligibility, Jackie Robinson was elected to the base ball Hall of Fame, in Cooperstown, N. Y., on October 24, 1972.⁴³

As Jackie Robinson's career was coming to an end, black stars of the future was just beginning to enter the Major League, taking advantage of the opportunities which Jackie's performance had created. Future greats like Willie Mays, Henry (Hank) Aaron, Ernie Banks, and current National League President, Mr. Bill White, would all be provided an opportunity because of the special qualities of Jackie Robinson.

Mr. Bill White, the National League President, start in baseball was as a result of Jackie Robinson's achievements. In an article commemorating Jackie Robinson in Ebony, Mr. White recalls:

He [Jackie Robinson] was probably the greatest competitor there ever was . . . They put him in a baseball uniform and made him take crap off illiterates . . . I couldn't have played under those conditions.⁴⁴

Post Robinson and Modern Day Baseball

Since the admission of Jackie Robinson to the Major League, blacks are found at most levels of the organizational hierarchy, from manager to player to National League President. The successes of the Brooklyn Dodgers, and particularly Jackie Robinson, ushered in numerous black players and "superstars" into major league baseball. Specifically inviting was the added aspect that black baseball players contributed to the game with their speed.

The most dramatic and noticeable element that black players brought to the game was speed . . . The introduction of faster

players to the game forced managers to change their strategies so they could either take advantage of or defend against these speedsters . . . The blazing speed of black players wasn't confined to the base paths, but was often showcased by outfielders like Willie Mays, who demonstrated for the world the value of speed when he made his amazing over the shoulder catch in deep center field during the 1954 World Series.⁴⁵

With the inclusion of black baseball players, evolved the perception that the art of base stealing could be a lethal offensive weapon. And, black ball players would eventually dominate this offensive technique.

After Robinson, a host of fleet of feet players followed in his footsteps and continued to define the limits of the base paths. Sam (The Jet) Jethroe, a Boston Brave speedster, led the National League in stolen bases in the 1950 and 1951 with 35 each year, and Bill Bruton took honors in the National League with the most stolen bases in 1953, 1954, and 1955 . . . [however that] single season record was [broken] in 1962 by Maury Wills with 104 stolen bases . . . Lou Brock broke that record with 118 thefts in 1974, and Rickey Henderson of the Oakland A's erased the Saint Louis Cardinal outfielder's mark when he swiped 130 bases in 1982 (Henderson also broke Brock's all time stolen base record when he stole his 939th base on May 1, 1991).⁴⁶

But without Jackie Robinson's achievements, the opportunities and representation of blacks throughout baseball today would not exist, as we know it. Chief in providing players opportunities in baseball today is their organizational support structure, such as, the Florida Instructional League (FIL) and Arizona Instructional League (AIL).

These organizations are established with the notion that potential can be nurtured through instruction. Using a recent excerpt from The Kansas City Star, reporting on their local Major League team's, the Kansas City Royal, FIL team at Baseball City, Florida, illustrates this position:

The Florida Instructional League [FIL] and its counterpart, the Arizona Instructional League (AIL), are baseball's laboratories. Royals players report to the FIL in September. A 36 game schedule runs from September 19 through October 31 The pace is far more relaxed than the regular season. Rules are not ironclad This program is the most important program [they] have in our player development system.⁴⁷

Many of the future, and past, stars' potential were cultivated in the Major League's developmental and farm system. All categories, from first round draft choices, to "walk-on's", have been sent to the "farm" for evaluation and when potential was identified, development within the farm system. And the instructional league has proven a critical element of the developmental system within the major league.

The farm and development systems, of major league baseball, are credited with their status as "the most equal opportunity employer." Announcements go out through every media instrument, e.g., newspaper announcements, radio, and television, of try outs, and players flock to take advantage of their perceived abilities. Regardless of race, the "want to be's" are assessed and if determined as having professional

baseball potential, they are programmed through the "farm system."

The instructional, developmental and farm systems' results, and its contribution toward promoting equal employment opportunities, will be evaluated during chapter 4, and compared to the United States Army, and its: "Be All You Can Be" results.

CHAPTER FOUR

COMPARISON AND ANALYSIS

General

The challenge of comparing the United States Army to Major League Baseball comes close to the old adage, "comparing apples to oranges". However, even apples and oranges have similarities which can be compared, using the proper model, and such is this case, as we equate baseball and Army achievements in providing equal employment opportunity.

As outlined in chapter 1 a model was constructed around the following five aspects of the Army and baseball organization: Accessions, Promotions, Retention, Key Assignments, and, Discipline. Within these five imperatives, an evaluation was done using the established employment objectives and goals of the organizations, when available. However, in the absence of an established goal or objective, the 12 percent representation of blacks within the overall United States' population will be utilized as the standard of measurement. In the cases when the 12 percent of black representation standard must be used, achievement of equal employment opportunity will be appraised as being met when

that category has a representation which equals, or is greater than, the 12 percent ratio of the group population, for the positive tenets: Accessions, Promotions and Key Assignments.

The inverse will be the standard for the negative tenets, Discipline and Retentions [Involuntary Separations]; whereby the standard of measurement will be a less than or equal to the proportional representation of the group, e.g., do blacks represent 12 percent or less than the total punishment being administered. If, for example, we discover that 30% of disciplinary measures are being administered to blacks [i.e., 12% of the overall population] this category will be rated as discriminatory.

Accessions

The study will compare the populations of newly commissioned officers and enlisted recruits, with that of the major league's rookies, and the recent additions to their front offices and management positions. DA PAM 600-26, Department of the Army Affirmative Action Plan (AAAP), defines the accessions objectives and goals for the United States Army, as the following excerpt illustrates:

- a. Subject: Enlisted Accessions
 - (2) Objectives: Ensure all qualified individuals have an EO for service in the Army
 - (4) Goals: Ensure that all categories have an EO for access into any MOS according to their qualifications, specialty preference, and the needs of the Army
- b. Subject: Officer accessions -

(nonscholarship accessions).

(2) Objective: Ensure all qualified nonscholarship members of the ROTC program have an EO for commissioning into the Army.

(4) Goals: Commissioning rates for qualified members of each category should be comparable to the overall commissioning rate for the total population of ROTC nonscholarship members being commissioned . . .¹

The point of the preceding extract is to amplify that within the United States Army, equal employment opportunity objectives and goals are clearly defined and established, this is in contrast to Major League Baseball's employment objectives and goals.

However, as previously noted in chapter 1, major league baseball stated its commitment to equal employment opportunity "after Los Angeles Dodgers executive Al Campanis' racially biased comments in 1987."² And, since the more recent racist comments by Cincinnati Reds owner, Marge Schott, baseball's minority employment has again been placed under scrutiny. This has resulted in many civil right activists, particularly Jesse Jackson, proposing that baseball establish definitive and measurable objectives.

In fact, Jesse Jackson has recently presented the following 10 point Affirmative Action Plan, in response to this latest "Marge Schott" outburst:

1. Plan community programs and youth leagues to begin in 1994.
2. Add three minority or women members to each team's board.
3. Develop three-to-five year affirmative action plans for team positions, including umpires and broadcaster's.

4. Purchase at least 20% of all goods and services from minority/ women owned vendors.
5. Develop three-to-five year affirmative actions plan for manufacturing, marketing and merchandising through Major League Properties.
6. Form a committee to seek possible minority team ownership.
7. Include at least two minority candidates for all executive and managerial jobs.
8. Provide personal development and financial management training for players.
9. Provide "diversity and humanities training" for all owners and executives.
10. Appoint a vice president for organization development and diversity.³

These recommendations encompassed all facets of baseball's organization, and functions. However, Jesse Jackson's plan was rejected by the owners, and resulted in the owners developing a plan of their own. The owners titled their plan, the "Baseball Management's Plan", which was announced in the USA TODAY on 30 March 1993 and encompassed the following goals and objectives:

1. Include minority candidates for jobs throughout their organization "within a reasonable time frame."
2. Attempt to attract minorities as investors and have "appropriate minority participation" on their boards of directors.
3. Seek minority owned vendors, including doctors, lawyers, and bankers.
4. Insist non-minority vendors be equal opportunity employers.
5. Make new efforts to attract minorities as fans.
6. Have their employees undergo sensitivity training "unless clearly unnecessary."
7. Increased community and charitable activities.⁴

Needless to say, the apparent absence, within the owner's Baseball Management's Plan, of the establishment of

easily identifiable goals and objectives, within a specific time frame, invited ridicule from many, particularly, Jesse Jackson's Rainbow Coalition. Such terms as: "within a reasonable time", "appropriate minority participation", and "unless clearly unnecessary", within the owner's plan appeared to raise more questions, than it answered.

Of particular note are the verbal attacks Jesse Jackson made of Baseball Management's Plan:

Jackson said the plan was too general:
Its more a statement of goodwill . . . than a
team-by-team affirmative actions plan to
change irreversibly their racist and sexist ways.⁵

Additionally, several days later Jesse Jackson would "challenge federal officials to take a hard look at the hiring practice of Major League Baseball."⁶ The end result is, that unlike the United States Army, Major League Baseball is still without a defined equal employment objective and goals.

Consequently, the two organizations do not have similar established objectives and goals. Therefore, this study will review the total representation of blacks within both organizations, and compare them to the 12 percent ratio that blacks represent within the overall population. If the population assessed is more than or 12%, this is evidence of proportionally appropriate or over

representation. Conversely, less than 12% is evidence of under representation.

Promotions

The basis for a promotion is increased pay, as well as more responsibilities. Increased salaries will serve as the foundation of our contrast between members of the United States Army, and Major League Baseball (MLB). Within the Army, detailed statistics are maintained by category of those eligible, and, then compared to those which are promoted, which is then scrutinized in great detail for blatant evidence of discrimination.

Again, quoting DA PAM 600-26, the AAAP, the promotion goal, for both enlisted and officers, is that the "selection rate for all categories should not be less than the overall selection rate for the total population considered."⁷ Further, annually, the Office Of The Deputy Chief Of Staff For Personnel (DCS PER) must report an assessment of the actual achievement, to the established goals, to the Department of Defense.

This annual report addresses the shortfalls and any proposed corrective actions that will be instituted to address the identified discrimination, for improved achievements in the future years. Unfortunately for this study no comparable instrument exists for Major League

Baseball. However, since professional baseball is performance dependent, specifically at the player level, and even in the front office, success breeds promotions and significantly increased pay. If a team goes to the pennant, managements' and players' contracts are extended.

However, if the organization, year end and year out, produce a "Cleveland Indian" type record [habitually in last place for the pennant], contracts are terminated early, and starters salaries are low, "Felix Fermin is the highest paid player at \$950,000, meaning the [Cleveland] Indians are the only team without a player at \$1 million or more"⁸ Therefore, for comparison we will contrast the promotion rate of black and white enlisted E-7 and above and officers, with the results of contract negotiations of baseball players and management, for a specific period. The focus will be, were black baseball players' contracts negotiated in a blatantly discriminatory manner? Are black baseball players appropriately represented among the highest paid players?

Retentions

Job security is the greatest fear gripping Americans in this last decade of the 20th century. The armed forces, much like professional sports, can not, and will not

guarantee a secured future. For the Army, with its drawdown, Selective Early Retirement Boards (SERB), Reduction In Force (RIF), Qualitative Management Program (QMP), promotion passovers, and, weighty standards of conduct, rapid personnel departures resulted in the following Army Affirmative Action Plan (AAAP) policy for involuntary separation: "Ensure that all separation policies are applied equitably among all personnel."⁹ Additionally, DA PAM 600-26, the AAAP, plainly states that the Army's goal is to "ensure that separation actions are not inappropriately influenced REDCAT (Racial/Ethnic Designation Categories).

However, this study contends that the chance of not being involuntarily separated, and earning a retirement, or voluntary separation status, equals the chance of a baseball player completing an initial season and gaining continued Major League Baseball (MLB) service through a lucrative contract renegotiation.

This contention that both are equally difficult will form the substratum of analysis. The question, what percentage of involuntary departures are black will direct this aspect of the study.

Key Assignments

Second only in importance to job security/ Retention, is an employee's satisfaction in one's occupational

assignments and the belief that one's full potential will be utilized within the organization. This criteria is key within the evaluation because it assesses the "ego" aspect of a job. Repeatedly, it has been demonstrated that although an individual outranks or "earns more money" than another individual, if that second individual occupies a position of greater distinction, or prestige, the better paid individual will feel slighted and discontent.

Therefore, with this as a reality, key assignments within the organizations will be surveyed. For this study, key positions within the Army are defined as E-7, Sergeant First Class (SFC), through E-9, Sergeants Major (CSM/SGM), for enlisted soldiers; and, O-1, Second Lieutenant (2LT), through O-10, General (GEN), within the officer corps.

Major League baseball's key positions are defined as Major League baseball's starters, Prime Relievers [within a normal rotation], managers, and key front office positions [President, General Managers, Financial Directors, and Managers], and American and National League presidents, and the Commissioner.

For this study, baseball players are equated to enlisted soldiers, and, managers, front office positions, and league presidents and the commissioner, will be equated to commissioned officers. However, as noted earlier in chapter 1, million dollar (\$XX,000,000) players will be elevated and

equated to commissioned officers. Credibility demands that San Francisco's Barry Bonds, with a new \$43.75 million contract, not be considered as an E-7, E-8 or E-9, but rather as if he were a senior commissioned officer. For this study, such a "franchise player" will be granted the equivalence of a General Officer, because of his salary and perceived importance to the organization.

Discipline

The essence of any organization's integrity is embodied in the manner that it administers justice. The slightest appearance of partiality, or discrimination, will corrupt the institution in the eyes of its members. The members being favored will develop a disregard for its principles, and its victims will not feel compelled to become committed totally to the principles.

DA PAM 600-26, Army Affirmative Action Plan (AAAP), states that the United States Army's judicial goal is simply to "ensure that all soldiers are treated equitably."¹⁰ No specific goal is established as an measurement for equal application of justice within the United States Army, nor, in Major League Baseball organization. Therefore, this study will use the 12% representation of the population as the standard of measurement. However, as was previously discussed, this measurement will be the inverse of the other tenets. Nondiscrimination will be rated for negative judicial participation at a rate of 12% and below, versus the

previous application of 12% and above being rated as evidence of proportional appropriateness.

Data Analysis
United States Army

Accessions

Although the United States Department of Defense has been enduring a "cutback" recently, its strategy has been reported as wanting to attrit the upper echelon, and maintain a consistent influx of junior enlisted and officer personnel. Accession figures for FY 1988 [the most recent data available] register the following data as noted:

Table 1.--Accessions ¹¹

SOURCE	TOTAL	OFFICERS ACCESSIONS		ENLISTED ACCESSIONS	
		WHITE	BLACK	WHITE	BLACK
		TOTAL/PERCENTAGE (%)		TOTAL/PER CENTAGE	
OCS	602	515/85.5%	65/ <u>10.7%</u>	NOT APPLICABLE	
ROTC	5057	4088/80.8%	660/ <u>13.1%</u>	NOT APPLICABLE	
USMA	1319	1080/81.8%	108/ <u>8.1%</u>	NOT APPLICABLE	
TOTAL	6978	5683/81.4%	833/11.9%	NOT APPLICABLE	
RECRUITS	116,178	NOT APPLICABLE		77,927/67%	29065/25%

Note: Other racial categories (i.e., Hispanics) not included.

Promotions

The United States Army is solidly on record in its commitment to providing all members equal promotion opportunities. The following instructions to a recent Lieutenant Colonel's command selection board illustrates this charge: "The Army is firmly committed to providing equal opportunity for minority and female in all facets of their career development, utilization, and progression . . ."¹²

The data will be displayed as the percentage of the numbers of the white and black candidates selected for promotion from the numbers of the blacks and whites considered; and, the percentage of the blacks and whites as a representative of their group's total promoted. For example, in 1985, (A) 1695 Captains were promoted to Major; 1903 whites were Considered (B) and 1489 were Selected (C). Group (D) (Total Promoted divided by Total Considered) [1489/1903 = 78.2%]. Additionally, displayed is the Representative (E) percentage, which represents whites promoted to Major, compared to the total population of Captains promoted to Majors [1489/1695 = 87.8%].

The Fiscal Year (FY) 1988 Equal Opportunity Assessment provides the following data for FY 1985 - 1988:¹³

Table 2.--1985 Promotion Results [Officers]

<u>TO GRADE</u>	<u>TOTAL PROMOTED</u> (A)	<u>WHITE</u>			<u>BLACK</u> (E)	
		(B)	(C)	(D)		
<u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP) /REPRESENTATIVE%</u>						
0-4/MAJ	1695	1903/1489/(78.2%)	/87.8%		223/155/(69.5%)	/9.1%
0-5/LTC	1523	1828/1419(77.6%)	/93.2%		104/66/(63.5%)	/4.4%
0-6/COL	467	822/440/(53.5%)	/94.2%		38/19/(50.0%)	/4.1%

Table 3.--1986 Promotion Results [Officers]

<u>TO GRADE</u>	<u>TOTAL PROMOTED</u> (A)	<u>WHITE</u>			<u>BLACK</u> (E)	
		(B)	(C)	(D)		
<u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP) /REPRESENTATIVE%</u>						
0-4/MAJ	1983	2247/1697/(75.5%)	/85.6%		279/211/(75.6%)	/10.6%
0-5/LTC		NO PROMOTION BOARD HELD IN FY 1986				
0-6/COL	413	754/392/(52.0%)	/94.9%		39/18/(46.2%)	/4.4%

Table 4.--1987 Promotion Results [Officers]

<u>TO GRADE</u>	<u>TOTAL PROMOTED</u> (A)	<u>WHITE</u>			<u>BLACK</u> (E)	
		(B)	(C)	(D)		
<u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP) /REPRESENTATIVE%</u>						
0-4/MAJ	2249	2583/1929/(74.7%)	/85.8%		364/250/(68.7%)	/11%
0-5/LTC	1324	1756/1231/(70.1%)	/92.9%		99/64/(64.6%)	/4.8%
0-6/COL	454	940/425/(45.2%)	/93.6%		49/21/(42.9%)	/4.6%

Table 5.--1988 Promotion Results [Officers]

<u>TO GRADE</u>	<u>TOTAL PROMOTED</u> (A)	<u>WHITE</u>			<u>BLACK</u> (E)
		(B)	(C)	(D)	
<u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/(GROUP%)/REPRESENTATIVE%</u>					
0-4/MAJ	2215	2803	1828/(65.2%)	82.5%	448/280/(62.5)/13%
0-5/LTC	1065	1474	970/(65.8%)	91.0%	110/66/(60%)/6.1%
0-6/COL	634	1497	595/(40%)	93.8%	61/22/(36.1%)3.5%

Tables 2 through 5 indicate that from 1985 to 1988 white officers had a better chance than black officers to be promoted to the three grades, as represented in Group E, Representative. However, the data does indicates that the discrepancy narrowed in each successive year. By 1988 0-4/Majors had achieved approximately appropriate representation of blacks promoted, while 0-5/ Lieutenant Colonel and Colonel still had a way to go. The data do indicate also that if the current trend continues, appropriate levels of representation will be achieved early in the next century.

Senior Enlisted Promotions

Senior noncommissioned officers' promotions within the United States Army have been within 5 percentage points of the following promotions results of Fiscal Year 1987 and 1988, for FY 1985 - 1988, therefore, only 1987 and 1988 figures are reported:¹⁴

The data will be displayed in a similar manner as the officers' promotion data earlier. A percentage will be expressed representing the percentage of black and white candidates which were selected from the total populations of the blacks and whites considered. Then the data will be presented as a Representative percentage of the blacks and whites as they are representative of the total number promoted within the overall population, e.g., in 1987, (A) 7297 Staff Sergeants (SSG/E-6) were promoted to Sergeant First Class (E-7); 19062 whites were Considered (B) and 4253 were Selected (C) 4253/19062 is shown as the Group (D) percentage 22.3%. Additionally, displayed is the Representative (E) percentage which represents the total numbers of whites promoted compared to the total Sergeant First Classes promoted, 4253/ 7297 which represents 58.3%.

Table 6.--1987 Enlisted Promotion Results [Enlisted Results]

TO GRADE	<u>TOTAL</u> <u>PROMOTED</u>	<u>(WHITE)</u>			<u>BLACK</u>	
		(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)
<u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP)/REPRESENTATIVE %</u>						
E-7/SFC	7297	19062	4253	(22.3%)	11515	2285/(19.8%/31%
E-8/MSG	2268	14090	1600	(11.4%)	5156	488/(9.5%)21.5%
E-9/SGM	586	1917	335	(17.4%)	1305	196/(15.0%)32.9%

Table 7---1988 Enlisted Promotion Results [Enlisted Promotions]

TO GRADE	<u>TOTAL</u> <u>PROMOTED</u>	<u>(WHITE)</u>			<u>BLACK</u>
		(A)	(B)	(C)	
<u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP%) /REPRESENTATIVE%</u>					
E-7/SFC	6650	17326	3603/(20.7%)	54.1%	11552/2374/(20.5%) 35.6%
E-8/MSG	2803	14398	1928/(13.4%)	68.7%	5699/622/(10.9%) 22.1%
E-9/SGM	743	2327	505/(19.0%)	67.9%	1315/189/(14.3%) 25.4%

Tables 6 and 7 indicated that in 1987 and 1988 white noncommissioned officers had a better chance than black noncommissioned officer for promotion to the senior grades, Group D. However a difference is that black representation is very close (@ 5%) to the select rate of their white counterparts.

Retention Involuntary Separations

There is always a underlying fear that during a force reduction pain will not be equally shared. There is no greater disappointment than to be involuntarily separated from a job. The desire to continue to serve is frustrated by the realization that one's services are no longer required. Many fear that "as the military downsizes, minorities are going through an 'ethnic cleansing', according to retired Major Chris Gonzalez, president of the Minority Officers Association."¹⁵ A review of separation data provided in

the Fiscal Year 1988 Equal Opportunity Assessment shown in Tables 8 and 9 indicates that blacks are separated at rates higher than appropriate percentage of the overall population.

Table 8.--Commissioned Officers Separated

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>Total Separated</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>
FY '88	1792	1382/77.1%	297/ <u>16.5%</u>
FY '87	2093	1606/76.7%	355/ <u>17.0%</u>
FY '86	1784	1332/74.7%	368/ <u>20.6%</u>

Table 9.--Enlisted Separated

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>Total Separated</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>
FY '88	26274	17281/65.7%	7493/ <u>28.5%</u>
FY '87	26821	18304/68.2%	6963/ <u>25.9%</u>
FY '86	31163	21433/68.8%	8013/ <u>25.7%</u>

Key Assignments
Senior Ranking Distribution

The sheer numerical representation within an organization is only surpassed as this representation is found throughout an organization's entire hierarchy. As previously stated, for the purpose of this study senior ranking is defined as E-7 and above, and the selection for the most sought after positions: Brigade/ Battalion level command, and designation as Command Sergeant Major. The

March 1991 Semi-annual Race/Ethnic/Gender profile of the Department of Defense provides the pertinent data for analysis.

Table 10.--United States Army Commissioned Officers

<u>GRADE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>WHITE</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>BLACK</u>	<u>%</u>
0-10/GEN	12	11	91.7%	1	8.3%
0-9/LTG	48	43	89.6%	5	10.4%
0-8/MG	141	131	92.9%	7	5.0%
0-7/BG	205	188	91.7%	14	6.8%
0-6/COL	4661	4271	91.6%	215	4.6%
0-5/LTC	10,607	9621	90.7%	589	5.6%
0-4/MAJ	17,703	15,157	85.6%	1742	9.8%
0-3/CPT	33,086	26645	80.5%	4563	13.8%
0-2/1LT	12,007	9617	13.3%	1598	13.3%
0-1/2LT	11,035	8985	81.4%	1312	11.9% ¹⁶

Table 10 indicates that at the junior level, 0-1 through 0-3, black representation is appropriate, however, at the field grade level and General Officer level, 0-4 through 0-8 particularly, the black population steadily declines. The 0-9 and 0-10 data is unable to be analyzed because of the small population.

Table 11.--Senior Noncommissioned Officers

<u>GRADE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>WHITE</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>BLACK</u>	<u>%</u>
E-9/SGM	4295	2681	62.4%	1290	30%
E-8/MSG	14,526	9541	65.7%	3625	25%
E-7/SFC	52,599	30,246	57.5%	16,658	31.7% ¹⁷

Table 11 shows that Blacks are over represented at the Senior noncommissioned officer ranks.

Key Assignment [Command Selectees]

The significant definition of success within the United States Army is the selection for command of a brigade (O-6/Colonel) or battalion (O-5/Lieutenant Colonel), for a commissioned officer; and, appointment to Command Sergeant Major (E-9/CSM) for enlisted. [Note: Types of commands are Combat Arms, Combat Support (Combat SS), and Combat Service Support (Combat SS)]. 1988 and 1987 command selection results will provide the data.¹⁸

The data will be displayed in a similar manner as the officers' and noncommissioned officers' promotion data earlier. A percentage will be expressed representing the percent of black and white candidates who were selected from the total population of the blacks and whites considered. Then the data will be presented as a Representative percentage of the blacks and whites as they are

representative of the total number selected for command within the overall population.

For example, in 1988, (A) 83 Colonels (0-6) were selected for combat arms command; 902 whites were Considered (B) and 77 were Selected (C). Group (D) percentage represents that ratio of those selected within the white population [$77/902 = 8.5\%$]. Additionally, displayed is the Representative (E) percentage which represents the total numbers of whites selected for command compared to the total of the 0-6 combat arms command selectees [$77/83 = 92.8\%$].

Table 12.--1988 0-6 Command Selection

<u>TYPE</u>	<u>TOTAL CONSIDERED/ SELECTED/ %</u>	<u>WHITE CONSIDERED/SELECTED/</u>	<u>BLACK (GROUP)/REPRESENTATIVE%</u>
Combat Arms	(A) 960/83/8.6%	(B) (C) (D) (E) 902/77/(8.5%)/92.8%	(B) (C) (D) (E) 35/4/(11.4%)/4.8%
Combat SPT	412/43/10.4%	385/38/(9.8%)/88.7%	18/2/(11.1%)/4.7%
Combat SPT	574/66/11.4%	526/61/(11.5%)/92.4%	35/5/(14.2%)/7.6%

Table 13--1987 0-6 Command Selection

<u>TYPE</u>	<u>TOTAL CONSIDERED/ SELECTED/ %</u>	<u>WHITE CONSIDERED/SELECTED/</u>	<u>BLACK (GROUP)/REPRESENTATIVE%</u>
Combat Arms	(A) 1094/61/5.5%	(B) (C) (D) (E) 1028/58/(5.6%)/95.1%	(B) (C) (D) (E) 40/2/(5.2%)/3.2%
Combat SPT	413/46/11.1	387/42/(10.8%)/91.3%	22/3/(13.6%)/6.6%

Table 13--Continued.

TYPE	<u>TOTAL</u> <u>CONSIDERED/</u> <u>SELECTED/ %</u>	<u>WHITE</u> <u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP)</u> <u>/REPRESENTATIVE%</u>				<u>BLACK</u> (B) (C) (D) (E) 38/2/(5.2%)/3.6%	
		(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
Combat SS	(A) 617/55/8.9%	(B) 570/51/(8.9%)	(C)	(D)	(E) 92.7%		(B) (C) (D) (E) 38/2/(5.2%)/3.6%

Table 14. 1988 0-5 Command Selection

TYPE	<u>TOTAL</u> <u>CONSIDERED/</u> <u>SELECTED/ %</u>	<u>WHITE</u> <u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP)</u> <u>/REPRESENTATIVE%</u>				<u>BLACK</u> (B) (C) (D) (E) 91/12/(13.1)/4.8%	
		(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
Combat Arms	(A) 2729/252/9.2%	(B) 2582/238/(9.2%)	(C)	(D)	(E) 94.4%		(B) (C) (D) (E) 91/12/(13.1)/4.8%
Combat SPT	(A) 1307/76/5.8%	(B) 1221/67/(5.4%)	(C)	(D)	(E) 88.2%		(B) (C) (D) (E) 53/9/(16.9%)/11.8%
Combat SS	(A) 2370/105/4.4%	(B) 2204/98/(4.4%)	(C)	(D)	(E) 93.3%		(B) (C) (D) (E) 115/5/(4.3%)/4.8%

Table 15.--1987 0-5 Command Selection

TYPE	<u>TOTAL</u> <u>CONSIDERED/</u> <u>SELECTED/ %</u>	<u>WHITE</u> <u>CONSIDERED/SELECTED/ (GROUP)</u> <u>/REPRESENTATIVE%</u>				<u>BLACK</u> (B) (C) (D) (E) 100/8/(8.0%)/3.0%	
		(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	
Combat Arms	(A) 3236/270/8.3%	(B) 3053/253/(8.3%)	(C)	(D)	(E) 93.7%		(B) (C) (D) (E) 100/8/(8.0%)/3.0%
Combat SPT	(A) 1411/100/7.0%	(B) 1287/82/(5.3%)	(C)	(D)	(E) 82.0%		(B) (C) (D) (E) 61/11/(18%)/11.0%
Combat SS	(A) 1882/127/5.7%	(B) 1741/121/(6.9%)	(C)	(D)	(E) 95.3%		(B) (C) (D) (E) 90/5/(5.5%)/3.9%

Tables 12 through 15 indicate that black representation for 0-5 command selection was greatest for Combat Support commands; and, for 0-6 command selection it was generally consistent for 1988 and only appropriate for Combat Service Support (CSS) in 1987.

Table 16.--Command Sergeants Major Selection

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>TOTAL CONSIDERED/ SELECTED (SEL) / PERCENTAGE (%)</u>	<u>WHITE CONSIDERED/SEL/(GROUP)</u>	<u>BLACK REPRESENTATIVE</u>
1988	(A) 5430/235/4.3%	(B) 3361/171/(5.0%)/72%	(B) 1668/55/(3.2%)/23%
1987	5321/232/4.4%	3149/167/(5.3%)/80%	1782/49/(2.7%)/21%
1986	5138/271/5.3%	2914/167/(5.7%)/62%	1853/85/(4.6%)/31%
1985	5412/312/5.8%	3114/196/(6.3%)/63%	1926/95/(4.9%)/30%

Note: Percentages greater than 12 percent are rounded up.

Black representation was within an appropriate range from 1985 through 1988.

Punishment

"Equal Justice Under the Law" is a credo which is non-negotiable for a truly equal opportunity employer. The prosecution of equal justice can not be compromised if the organization is to profess fairness for all. Justice within the United States Army is categorized as judicial and nonjudicial punishment. Judicial punishment, e.g., courts martial, affords the accused every constitutional protection, while nonjudicial punishment, e.g., Article 15, is streamlined and with an agreement of limited punishment, the accuse accept "administrative" punitive punishment. The 1988 Equal Opportunity Assessment provides the following data to be analyzed:¹⁹

Table 17--Courts Martial Results (1988)

<u>TYPE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>WHITE</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>BLACK</u>	<u>%</u>
SUMMARY	1410	808	57.3%	505	35.8%
SPECIAL	202	93	46.0%	94	46.5%
BCD SPECIAL	973	477	49.9%	415	42.7%
GENERAL	1679	867	51.6%	691	41.2%
TOTAL TRIED	4264	2245	52.6%	1705	39.9%

Table 18--Courts Martial Results (1987)

<u>TYPE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>WHITE</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>BLACK</u>	<u>%</u>
SUMMARY	1492	860	57.6%	515	34.5%
SPECIAL	237	104	43.9%	121	51.1%
BCD SPECIAL	1107	598	54.0%	458	41.4%
GENERAL	1519	775	51.2%	654	43.1%
TOTAL TRIED	4355	2337	53.7%	1748	40.1%

Table 19--Courts Martial Results (1986)

<u>TYPE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>WHITE</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>BLACK</u>	<u>%</u>
SUMMARY	1392	847	60.8%	447	32.1
SPECIAL	278	132	47.4%	129	46.4%
BCD SPECIAL	1269	687	54.1%	519	40.4%
GENERAL	1451	706	48.7%	631	43.5%
TOTAL TRIED	4393	2372	53.9%	1726	39.3%

Table 20.--Non-Judicial Punishment (Article 15)

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>WHITE</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>BLACK</u>	<u>%</u>
1988	91,915	53029	57.7%	33,119	36.0%
1987	99,886	59,266	59.3%	34,340	34.4%
1986	111,757	66,915	59.9%	37,773	33.8%
1985	122254	71,237	58.3%	42,154	34.5%

Blacks are significantly over represented, the implications of this will be discussed in more detail later in this study.

Data Analysis
Major League Baseball

Accessions

Major League Baseball's (MLB) recruits are from multiple sources: the collegiate ranks, high schools, and their proficient "farm" system. At the end of each baseball season, baseball teams across America begin the process of self criticism, and analysis. Their goals, during this self evaluation are similar: How can we maintain our previous successes and, more importantly, overcome the dominant teams within the league?

Major League Baseball management critique the accomplishments and needs of their organization throughout the playing season, and hope to fill their "blatant" needs through trades, drafts or its developmental league.

The initiative behind the assessments is supposedly based upon the organizations' needs, regardless of race.

This study will review how well baseball organizations fulfill the preceding tenet, fill the organizations' needs without regard to race.

Promotions

As previously noted, for major league baseball members, promotions equate to higher salaries, primarily through lucrative contracts. "Major league's baseball's average salary has climbed to \$1,089,666 for 1993's opening day, a jump of 7.6% from 1992's final average of \$1,012,424."²⁰ The question being addressed is: "Is there discrimination between the salary of black and white players?"

Although "100 players will earn \$3 million or more this season,"²¹ a review of the players with the highest average salaries will provide the data for this study. Compilation from Jet magazine, USA Today and the New York Times provides the following salaries:

Table 21--1993 Salaries

<u>PLAYER/RACE</u>	<u>TEAM</u>	<u>SALARY</u>
Barry Bonds/Black	San Francisco	\$7,291,667
Ryne Sandberg/White	Chicago Cubs	\$7,100,000

Table 21--Continued.

<u>PLAYER/RACE</u>	<u>TEAM</u>	<u>SALARY</u>
Joe Carter/Black	Toronto	\$6,500,000
Cal Ripken,Jr./White	Baltimore	\$6,500,000
Kirby Pluckett/Black	Minnesota	\$6,000,000
David Cone/White	Kansas City	\$6,000,000
Ken Griffey/Black	Seattle	\$6,000,000 ²²
Bobby Bonilla/Black	New York Mets	\$5,800,000
Jack Morris/White	Toronto	\$5,425,000
Roger Clemens/White	Boston Red Sox	\$5,380,250
Dwight Gooden/Black	New York Mets	\$5,150,000
Barry Larkin/Black	Cincinnati	\$5,120,000
Danny Tartabull/Black	New York Yankees	\$5,100,000
Ruben Sierra/Black	Oakland A's	\$5,000,000
Frank Viola/White	Boston Red Sox	\$4,730,000
Cecil Fisher/Black	Detroit Tigers	\$4,500,000
Doug Drabek/White	Pittsburgh Pirates	\$4,500,000
Chuck Finley/White	California Angels	\$4,375,000
*Jose Canseco/Hispanic	Texas Rangers	\$4,300,000
Andy Van Slyke/White	Pittsburgh Pirates	\$4,250,000
Will Clark/White	San Francisco	\$4,250,000
Greg Maddux/White	Chicago Cubs	\$4,200,000
Wally Joyner/White	California Angels	\$4,200,000
Nolan Ryan/White	Texas Rangers	\$4,200,000
Eddie Murphy/Black	New York Mets	\$4,125,000 ²³

Table 22--1992 Salaries

<u>PLAYER/RACE</u>	<u>TEAM</u>	<u>SALARY</u>
Bobby Bonilla/Black	New York Mets	\$6,100,000
Danny Tartabull/Black	New York Yankees	\$5,300,000
Ruben Sierra/Black	Oakland A's	\$5,000,000
Dwight Gooden/Black	Los Angeles	\$4,916,667
Frank Viola/White	Boston Red Sox	\$4,733,333
Barry Bonds/Black	Pittsburgh	\$4,700,000
Roger Clemens/White	Boston Red Sox	\$4,555,250
Doug Drabek/White	Pittsburgh	\$4,500,000
Cecil Fielder/Black	Detroit	\$4,500,000
Jack Morris/White	Toronto	\$4,425,000
Chuck Finley/White	California	\$4,375,000
*Jose Canseco/Hispanic	Texas Ranger	\$4,300,000
Barry Larkin/ Black	Cincinnati	\$4,300,000
Andy Van Slyke/White	Pittsburgh	\$4,250,000
Will Clark/ White	San Francisco	\$4,250,000
David Cones/White	New York Mets	\$4,250,000
Wally Joyner/White	California	\$4,200,000
Greg Maddux/White	Chicago Cubs	\$4,200,000
Nolan Ryan/White	Texas Ranger	\$4,200,000
Eddie Murphy/Black	New York Mets	\$4,125,000
Darryl Strawberry/Black	Los Angeles	\$4,050,000

Table 22--Continued

<u>PLAYER/RACE</u>	<u>TEAM</u>	<u>SALARY</u>
Fred McGriff/Black	San Diego	\$4,000,000
Rafael Palmeiro/Hispanic	Texas	\$3,850,000
Cadiotti, Tom/White	Los Angeles	\$3,750,000
Mitchell, Kevin/Black	Atlanta	\$3,750,000 ²⁴

The data indicates that for 1993 eleven (11) of the 25 highest paid baseball players were black. This compared with eleven (11) Blacks of the 25 highest paid players for 1992. (*Jose Canseco is reported as White). The percentages are:

Table 23.--1992/1993 Top 25 Players

<u>1993</u>		<u>1992</u>	
<u>TOTAL: 25 Players</u>		<u>TOTAL: 25 Players</u>	
<u>WHITE#/%</u>	<u>BLACK#/%</u>	<u>WHITE#/%</u>	<u>BLACK#/%</u>
14/56%	11/44%	14/56%	11/44%

This data represent an over representation of the proportions of blacks population. Considering that "thirty one percent of baseball players are members of [ethnic] minorities [@17% blacks and 14% Hispanic],"²⁵ the "appearance" is that players are compensated for their abilities, regardless of race.

Key Assignments

Such recent episodes as the "Los Angeles Dodgers executive, Al Campanis' racially biased comments in 1987 [and] Cincinnati Reds owner Marge Schott racial slurs"²⁶ caused baseball's minority representation in management to have been reviewed, and with unfavorable results. The following are the findings:

Table 24-- Baseball Key Assignments

<u>28 TEAM POSITIONS</u>	<u># MINORITIES</u> (African/Hispanic/Asian Americans)
CLUB PRESIDENT	0
GENERAL MGR	0
FINANCE DIR	2
SCOUTING DIR	1
<u>MGR/HEAD COACH</u>	<u>6</u>
TOTAL:	<u>2 OF A POSSIBLE 140 POSITIONS</u>
<u>% MINORITY</u>	<u>6.4%</u>
TOP 25 PLAYERS	11
TOTAL:	<u>20 OF A POSSIBLE 165 POSITIONS</u>
<u>% MINORITY</u>	<u>12.12%²⁷</u>

Although the previous table indicates that with the inclusion of baseball's 25 highest paid players, blacks are well represented within baseball management.

However, as the following articles illustrate baseball front office doors are locked to blacks. In fact, if the black highest paid players are removed from management the black representation reverts to a mere 9 of 140 or 6.4%. The data suggest that "franchise" players may be more like senior noncommissioned officers than like commissioned and General officers.

Thus, as NEWSWEEK stated in January 1992,

[D]espite more than two dozen managerial openings last year [1991], only one black Hal McRae [Kansas City Royals] got a job. (Bill White, an African-American, became the National League president in 1989). 'Baseball isn't the national pastime, says consultant Clifford Alexander, Its white America's pastime. [BLACK PLAYERS =18%
BLACK MANAGERS = 8%]²⁸

It is interesting that recently,

the Milwaukee Brewers, whose team president, Bud Selig, is chairman of baseballs' executive council [acting baseball commissioner], are under the major-league average in the hiring of minorities and women in their front office. The Brewers said in 1992 they employed seven (7) minorities among 76 front-office positions, or 9.2 percent . . . The 76 jobs range from club president to receptionist.²⁹

Regardless whose numbers are represented, Major League Baseball's black representation in the "front office" is below 12 per cent. The significance of this data will be analyzed later in the section on comparison.

Retention

Although current and accurate retention data was not attainable for this study, an inference, Tables 21 and 22 (Salaries), indicates that Major League Baseball, specifically at the player level, is performance, not racially, oriented. The best players are not only retained regardless of race, but their compensation has continued to rise.

In 1929, the average major league salary, \$7,531, was nearly 5.3 times the \$1,428 of the average U. S. wage earner . . . By 1991, the average baseball was 34 times the annual wages of men and 49 times the earnings of women in the USA . . . [African American] Barry Bonds' salary in 1993 is about 150 times more than U. S. male wage earner made in 1991.³⁰

The "appearance" continues that within the Major League Baseball organizations, outstanding players are retained and definitely rewarded regardless of race.

"Baseball salaries since 1980 have risen 17.83% a year [from \$143,756 in 1980 to \$1,089,666 in 1993]"³¹, and minorities, particularly African Americans, were represented in the top salaries. In fact, some have argued that black stars' compensation, e.g., Dwight Gooden, Willie Mays, Reggie Jackson, etc., is largely responsible for the rapid salary growth within baseball. Although an end does not always verify a condition, in the instance of retention in baseball, the rewards strongly indicate that performance is rewarded with continued service and increased salaries.

Punishment

Punishment data is even more scarce than information on Retention. Major League Baseball is a "very" private organization, in fact baseball is even exempted from the United States Antitrust laws!

The basis for major league baseball's exemption from antitrust statutes is a 1922 opinion by the United States Supreme court in a case called Federal Baseball Club of Baltimore versus National League of Professional Baseball Clubs "They are truly out of control", Rep. Charles E. Schumer of New York testified.³²

However, like Retention, an inference can be made that Major League Baseball's judicial system attempts to provide the "appearance" of equity, if for no other reason than defense of their unique antitrust status in the United States commercial business. But, a closer look at their most public disciplinary episode demonstrates that justice may not be fair, but no one is immune. The more recent cases fully illustrate this, i.e., Pete Rose's lifetime banishment from baseball, owners' [Yankee's and Cincinnati's] removal from daily operations, demonstrates that if you violate the baseball's rules, you will pay a 'penalty'. An analysis and comparison between baseball and the United States Army will be conducted later.

Data Comparison

Accessions

Table 1 illustrates that the United States Army exceeded 12% representation for enlisted recruitment and the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC) accessions; however, officers' accessions through Officers Candidate School (OCS) and the United States Military Academy (USMA) were 10.7% and 8.1%, respectively. Conversely, Major League Baseball's (MLB) accessions exceed 18% black rookies from their "farm" system, and the college and high school drafts.

Promotions

Tables 2 through 5 illustrate that black officers' promotions were constant throughout 1985 through 1988; although, black officers' promotions did not exceed 12% of the overall promoted population [(Group % (D) which represents the percentage of black or white promoted within the total population of promoted)].

Black officers' promotions were within approximately 10 percentage points of their white counterparts when considered within their respective groups [(Representative % (E) which represents those blacks and whites promoted from the number of blacks and whites considered)].

It is important to note that even if all black officers were promoted to the next higher field grade, O-4 through O-6, they would still not represent 12% of the

population promoted because less than 12% of 04's and above are/were black (Table 10). Therefore, one can argue that the 12% selection "goal" was unattainable. But as was previously observed, Tables 2 through 5 indicate that from 1985 to 1988 white officers had a better chance than black officers to promotions to the three grades, as represented in Group E, Representative.

However, the data does indicates that the discrepancy narrowed in each succeeding year. By 1988 0-4/ Majors had achieved approximately appropriate representation of blacks promoted, while 0-5/ Lieutenant Colonel and Colonel still had a way to go. The data do indicate also that if the current trend continues, appropriate levels of representation will be achieved in the next century. Additionally, Table 11 indicates that Senior Noncommissioned Officers are about 28% blacks, and as represented by Tables 6 and 7, blacks are promoted within that range, and definitely above 12% of the population.

Tables 21 through 24 reflect that Major League Baseball (MLB) promotes players because of potential and performance. In fact, Table 23 demonstrates that in 1992 and 1993 black players represented 44% of the top paid 25 baseball players. Baseball is profit oriented and the enterprise reflects this attitude. As Table 23 reflects, regardless of race the best players are compensated and promoted accordingly.

Retention

For the purpose of this study we looked at involuntary separations as an indication of the retention by the United States Army. Tables 8 and 9 show that blacks are involuntarily separated at higher percentage than their overall populations (16% through 21% separated compared with average 10% population of enlisted and officers [Table 10]).

Major League Baseball however can not be ascertained as to what is the exact population, and causes, for their members involuntary separations from baseball. Players move into the majors, and back down to the minors routinely, because of injuries, rehabilitation, refinement, strategy, etc. However, as was mentioned earlier in chapter 4, Data Analysis, an inference from Tables 21 and 22 (Salaries) can be made that separations are related to performance, and not race, particularly considering Barry Bonds' \$43.75 million contract.

Players who contribute to their teams' overall success appear to be retained, and rewarded; but, the inverse is apparently equally true for non contributors and poor performers. As previously noted, "baseball salaries since 1980 have risen 17.83% a year [from \$143,756 in 1980 to \$1,089,666 in 1993]"³³, and black players have participated fully during this salary explosion.

Key Assignments

Tables 10 and 11 reflect that in the United States Army, African Americans are represented throughout the higher grades of the organization. It is interesting that at E-7 (Sergeant First Class) through O-3 (Captain), blacks represent more than 12% [@12% for officers and 28% for senior noncommissioned officers]; however, at Field Grade (O-4) through General officers (O-7 through O-10) the percentage drops dramatically [9.8% for O-4 and 8.3% for O-10]

Table 24 reflects that Major League Baseball appears to have work to do in this area: of a possible 140 key managerial positions, only 9 are filled with blacks. And even after including the 25 highest paid black players we find only 20 of a possible 165 for 12.12%.

Punishment

As was mentioned earlier, "Equal Justice Under the Law" is a credo which is nonnegotiable for a truly equal opportunity employer. The prosecution of equal justice can not be compromised if the organization is to profess fairness for all. Tables 17 through 20 allude to a situation which must cause concern, in all categories of punishment, e.g., summary, special, bad conduct special and general courts martial, and, nonjudicial punishment, blacks significantly exceed their population representation. Most disturbing is

that in the category of General Courts Martial black soldiers almost double their population in convictions, a revelation that is both disturbing and confusing. The general appearance is that a minority of the overall population of the U. S. Army is receiving about 40% of its punishment. This disproportional distribution of "justice" to African American soldiers is cause for concern, and further research is warranted to ascertain the cause(s).

The findings may disclose that black soldiers commit a majority of crimes, or that there exist a bias in the administration of justice within the U. S. Army. Or, further research may not disclose any apparent explanations.

Major League Baseball's record with punishment is as was previously mentioned unable to be surveyed. The appearance is that actions are the primary cause for disciplinary actions, not race. Major League Baseball's history is filled with examples of players, managers, coaches, and owners being punished for their actions on the field and off. White and black players have been banished, and suspended for violating baseball's codes. Million dollar players this year are routinely punished for their off duty antics that are routinely reported in the media. In fact, because of baseball's constant scrutiny by the public the appearance is that they have been able to create an atmosphere of perceived fairness, and equal justice.

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

General

The purpose of this study was to delve into the equal opportunity employment practises of Major League Baseball and the United States Army. The study researched the history of integration within the United States Army and Major League Baseball. The significance of these two organizations is that each of these organizations decided, for their own necessities, to integrate before it was judicially mandated by the 1954 Supreme Court decision.

The previously stated subordinate questions will constitute the summary:

- (1) Is the concept of "equal" opportunity realistic?
- (2) Are established employment goals attainable?
- (3) Can abilities overcome racial prejudices?

As was previously noted, the United States Army has definitive equal opportunity employment goals, which are published and assessed for compliance. However, as was discovered in this study major league management's plan is not as definitive and can be evasive.

Summary

This study indicates that the concept of equal opportunity is very realistic and attainable! The strides achieved in the United States Army and Major League Baseball demonstrate that positive results can be achieved with the full commitment of an organization.

Although one can argue that no organization has achieved the "utopia" state of total equality, the United States Army and Major League Baseball have accomplished much within this area. In fact, the playing fields of baseball illustrates that abilities can overcome racial prejudices; the highest paid baseball player is black!

Many may argue that although the highest paid player is black, black representation is almost non existent within major league baseball's key assignments within management. This is true, and of greater concern is the trend which suggest that there is a disproportional administration of "justice" to blacks within the United States Army.

This data strongly implies that within Major League Baseball, there exists a "glass ceiling" in management which abilities alone can not penetrate! Although 11 of the 25 highest paid ball players are black, only 6% of the managerial positions are occupied by blacks.

Although blacks are found at every playing position, and are equally compensated for their playing abilities throughout major league baseball, their presence is very limited in management positions.

Another disturbing trend is the appearance within the United States Army at almost all ranks, for every year reviewed, most areas found white rates better than that for blacks. White rates exceeded blacks in accessions, promotions, key assignments and command selections. The negative areas, involuntary separations and punishment rates, are where blacks consistently led whites in this study. The enlisted ranks were the closest to parity, but there was still a positive trend for whites, and a negative trend for black soldiers.

The data determined that although the United States Army is in the forefront in providing equal employment opportunities through a formal race relations education program there remains a disparity between black and white soldiers achievements. Furthermore, their affirmative action plans and goals are supported with potentially harsh penalties for violators. DA PAM 600-26, Department of the Army Affirmative Action Plan is the document which formalizes their goals and objectives.

Conclusion

The Null Hypothesis: There is no difference between the Department of Defense and professional athletics (Major League Baseball) in providing equal opportunity in America, is falsified [with qualifications]. As stated in the 1988 Equal Opportunity Assessment:

equal opportunity is a reality in the Army. Accession programs reflect the view that young men and women see the Army providing an upward mobility opportunity in which they will be treated fairly based upon their abilities and not race, ethnicity, gender, or religion. The Army is committed to equal opportunity for all.¹

This study indicates that the United States Army may be a more equal opportunity employer than baseball in key assignments, commissioned officers compared with baseball's "front office" managerial personnel. Although we have previously stated that the United States Army has not achieved equality, they have "arrived" when compared to the accomplishments (or the lack thereof) of baseball in this area. Additionally, if "franchise players" are seen as General Officers, baseball's black managerial representation fulfill the 12 percent "floor" established as appropriate by this study. However, as previously noted, the assignment of General Officer status upon these highest paid players may have been incorrect, and if their numbers, 11 of 25, are applied as senior noncommissioned officers, then baseball would rate as essentially equal to the United States Army in that category, and fulfill the null hypothesis.

In fact when we graphically represent the areas as shown, baseball don't look too bad:

Synopsis MATRIX

<u>IMPERATIVES</u>	<u>UNITED STATES ARMY</u>	<u>BASEBALL</u>
ACCESSIONS	GOOD	GOOD
PROMOTIONS	BAD (+)	GOOD (-)
KEY ASSIGNMENTS	GOOD (-)	BAD
RETENTION	BAD	GOOD
DISCIPLINE	BAD	NOT EVALUATED

[Good means that imperatives was met more times than not, and Bad means that the area fail to meet the standard more times than not.]

In summation, the study leans towards the United States Army and falsification of the null hypothesis. However, as the matrix demonstrates both baseball and the United States Army have work to do.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further research is required to ascertain the importance of the disparities previously noted. This study failed to substantiate the previous premise stated in the summation, although areas do exist for concern as previously stated. However, the data does not answer questions on its own. The data could mean something negative, or something positive, or mean nothing at all.

Suggested additional areas for further research:

- (1) An in depth review of the application of the Uniform Code of Military Justice within the United States Army.
- (2) A review of the impact of the military draw down, and involuntary separations upon the retention, and assignments of blacks throughout the United States Army.
- (3) Traits and the effects of institutional racism within the United States Army.
- (4) Implementation of "Baseball Management Plan", and its effectiveness and their plan's impact upon blacks within baseball management.

In closing, it is important to note that this study was just a first step toward comprehending the complexities of achieving equal employment opportunity in America. Unfortunately this study appears to have raised more questions than it answered, however, it did provide a vehicle for discussing the tasks at hand.

CHAPTER ONE NOTES

¹Rainer H. Spencer, Major, USA, "Black, the Army and America", Military Review, The Journal of the United States Army no. 100-92-7 (July 1992): 3.

²Ibid., 8.

³Ibid., 6.

⁴Ibid., 6.

⁵Ibid, The Report of the National Advisory Commission On Civil Disorder (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968), 1-2.

⁶Ibid., 3.

⁷The State, (Columbia, SC), 25 October 1991.

⁸A.S. Doc Young, "Jackie Robinson Remembered", Ebony Magazine, (August 1992): 36.

⁹Laura B. Randolph, "Bill White: National League President", Ebony Magazine, (August 1992): 52.

¹⁰Fred J. Marba, LTC, USA. The Negro Personnel In The United States Army (Fort Leavenworth, KS: USACGSC, 1965), 3-6.

¹¹Key assignments will be further developed to compare positions of comparable responsibilities and salaries. For example, a \$10 million player may be granted General Officer equivalence.

CHAPTER TWO NOTES

¹Robert Ewell Greene, Black Defenders of America: 1775-1973 (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Company, 1974), 3.

²Ibid., 29.

³Ibid., 29.

⁴Ibid., 43.

⁵Hebert P. Blaustein and Robert P. Zangrando, Civil Rights and the Black American: A Documentary History, (New York, NY: Washington Square Press, 1970), 49.

⁶Ibid., 53.

⁷Ibid., 53.

⁸Ibid., 201.

⁹USA Today, (Arlington, VA), 30 December 1992.

¹⁰Albert P. Blaustein and Robert P. Zangrando, Civil Rights and the Black Americans, (New York, NY: Washington Square Press, 1970), 210.

¹¹George E. Knapp, Major, USA. "Buffalo Soldiers: 1866 through 1890", Military Review, The Journal of the United States Army no. 100-92-7 (July 1992): 65.

¹²Robert E. Greene, Black Defenders of America: 1775-1973, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1974), 110.

¹³Ibid., 110.

¹⁴Ibid., 114.

¹⁵Ibid., 114.

¹⁶Albert P. Blaustein and Robert P. Zangrando, Civil Rights and the Black Americans, (New York, NY: Washington Square Press, 1970), 268.

¹⁷George Knapp, Major, USA, Buffalo Soldiers: 1866 through 1870", Military Review, The Journal of the United States Army, no. 100-92-7 (July 1992): 65.

¹⁸Robert E. Greene, Black Defenders of America, 1775-1973, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1974), 109.

¹⁹Ibid., 125.

²⁰Ibid., 171.

²¹Albert P. Blaustein and Robert P. Zangrando, Civil Rights and the Black American, (New York, NY: Washington Square Press, 1970), 335.

²²Robert E. Greene, Black Defenders in America, 1775-1973, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1974), 171.

²³Ibid., 171.

²⁴Albert P. Blaustein and Robert P. Zangrando, Civil Rights and the Black Americans, (New York, NY: Washington Square Press, 1970), 323.

²⁵Ibid., 323.

²⁶Robert E. Greene, Black Defenders in America, 1775-1973, Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1974), 185.

²⁷Samuel A. Britten, MAJ, USA, The Black Officers in the United States Army During the Transitional Era from Segregation to Integration, World War II to Vietnam, (Fort Leavenworth, KS: CGSC, 1972), 5.

²⁸Ibid., 13.

²⁹Ibid., 17.

³⁰Albert P. Blaustein and Robert P. Zangrando, Civil Rights and the Black Americans, (New York, NY: Washington Square Press, 1970), 355.

³¹Samuel A. Britten, MAJ, USA, The Black Officer in the U.S. Army during the Transitional Era from Segregation to Integration World War II to Vietnam, (Fort Leavenworth, KS: CGSC, 1972), 23.

³²Ibid., 23.

³³The State, (Columbia, SC), 25 October 1991.

³⁴The State, (Columbia, SC), 25 October 1991.

³⁴The Annals of America, 511.

³⁶Ibid., 513.

³⁷Albert P. Blaustein and Robert P. Zangrando,
Civil Rights and the Black American, (New York, NY:
Washington Square Press, 1970), 385.

³⁸Ibid., 387.

³⁹Ibid., 385.

⁴⁰Robert E. Greene, Black Defenders of America,
1775-1973, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1974), 213.

⁴¹Ibid., 221.

⁴²Script of the CGSC Black History Month video
presentation.

⁴³Ibid., 3.

⁴⁴James A. Thomas, Race Relations Research in the
U.S. Army in the 1970's: A Collection of Selected Reading, 29
-30.

⁴⁵Ibid., iii.

⁴⁶Ibid., 32-47.

CHAPTER THREE NOTES

¹Robert W. Peterson, Only The Ball Was White, (Englewood Cliffs, NY: Prentice-Hall, 1970), 16.

²Ibid., v.

³Ibid., 16-17.

⁴Ibid., 36.

⁵Ibid., 34.

⁶Ibid., 32.

⁷Ibid., 34.

⁸Ibid., 33-34.

⁹Doc A. S. Young, "Jackie Robinson Remembered", Ebony Magazine, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1992), 42.

¹⁰Ibid., 17.

¹¹Robert W. Peterson, Only The Ball Was White, (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1970), 258-260.

¹²Ibid., 120.

¹³Ibid., 120.

¹⁴Ibid., 122.

¹⁵Ibid., 40.

¹⁶Ibid., 174.

¹⁷Ibid., 174.

¹⁸Ibid., 174.

¹⁹Ibid., 181.

- ²⁰Ibid., 181.
- ²²Ibid., 185.
- ²³Ibid., 186.
- ²⁴Ibid., 186 .
- ²⁵Ibid., 188.
- ²⁶Doc A. S. Young, "Jackie Robinson Remembered", Ebony Magazine, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1992), 40.
- ²⁷Ibid., 40.
- ²⁸Robert W. Peterson, Only The Ball Was White, (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1970), 196.
- ²⁹Ibid., 196.
- ³⁰Ibid., 196.
- ³¹Doc A. S. Young, "Jackie Robinson Remembered", Ebony Magazine, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1992), 42.
- ³²Ibid., 56.
- ³³Robert W. Peterson, Only The Ball Was White, (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1970), 1971.
- ³⁴Ibid., 197.
- ³⁵Ibid., 197.
- ³⁶Ibid., 200.
- ³⁷Ibid., 200.
- ³⁸Ibid., 204.
- ³⁹Hans J. Massaquoi, "The Breakthrough Stars", Ebcny Magazine, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1992), 46.
- ⁴⁰Ibid., 46.
- ⁴¹Ibid., 58.
- ⁴²Robert W. Peterson, Only The Ball Was White, (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1970), 204.

⁴³Doc A. S. Young, "Jackie Robinson Remembered",
Ebony Magazine, (Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1992), 42.

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⁴⁵Ibid., 58.

⁴⁶Ibid., 58.

⁴⁷The Kansas City Star, (Kansas City, KS), 18
October 1992.

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¹DA PAM 600-26, p.5.

²USA TODAY, (Arlington, VA), 11 January 1993.

³USA TODAY, (Arlington, VA), 12 March 1993.

⁴USA TODAY, (Arlington, VA), 30 March 1993.

⁵USA TODAY, (Arlington, VA), 30 March 1993.

⁶The Kansas City Star, (Kansas City, MO), 1 April 1993.

⁷DA PAM 600-26, p. 7.

⁸New York Times, (New York) 12 April 1992.

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¹⁰Ibid., p. 8.

¹¹Equal Opportunity Assessment, (The Pentagon: Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, 1988)

¹²Fiscal Year 1992 Promotion List for Major, Army Category, (Department of the U.S. Army), 21.

¹³Equal Opportunity Assessment, (The Pentagon: Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, 1988)

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¹⁶Semi-Annual Race/ Ethnic/ Gender Profile of the Department of Defense Active Forces, Reserve Forces, and the United States Coast Guard, (Patrick AFB, FL: DEOMI, 1991)

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Equal Opportunity Assessment, (The Pentagon: Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, 1988).

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰USA TODAY, (Alexandria, VA), 5 April 1993.

²¹USA TODAY, (Alexandria, VA), 5 April 1993.

²²USA TODAY, (Alexandria, VA), 19 December 1992.

²³JET, (Chicago), 23 November 1992

²⁴New York Times, (New York, NY), 12 April 1992.

²⁵"Scoreboard: Minority Opinion" Sports Illustrated, (New York, NY), 1991.

²⁶USA TODAY, (Alexandria, VA), 11 January 1993.

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²⁸"Business As Usual", Newsweek, 27 January 1992:
38-39.

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14 February 1993.

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